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NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* Kenneth C Kuhn

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NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* Dr. Lyle E. Larson

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DATED/*DATÉ* 7 October 1975 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* Kenneth C Kuhn

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXE* 3535 - 106 Street
Edgerton, Alberta
T6J 2L2

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE OF PARENTAL APPRAISALS ON ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by

KENNETH C. KUHN (C)

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS.

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Influence of Perceptual Congruence of Parental Appraisals on Adolescent Self-Esteem: An Empirical Study" submitted by Kenneth C. Kuhn in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.

Lyle E. Larson
.....
Supervisor

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Date 28 May 1975

ABSTRACT

Research regarding socialization factors which affect the development of self-esteem among adolescents has isolated the formative influence of parental appraisals. The bulk of this research, however, has relied upon adolescent perceptions for data regarding parental interest. Within the framework of the symbolic interaction perspective, this study compares responses from adolescents and parents to assess the discrete and combined effects of parental interest factors (as reported by parents) and perceived parental interest factors (as reported by adolescents) on adolescent self-evaluations, in the context of selected social structural, developmental and competence factors. Conditions influencing the congruence of the adolescent perception of parental interest with parental self-reports are also examined.

A theoretical model of ordered propositions is tested using survey responses from 1542 grade 7, 9 and 12 students, 697 of their mothers and 592 fathers. The unidimensional Rosenberg self-esteem scale is used to measure adolescent self-esteem.

The results find that adolescent self-esteem does not vary significiantly with socio-economic status or religious preference. Although boys and girls do not differ

markedly in self-evaluations, on the basis of cross-sectional analysis female adolescents significantly decrease in self-esteem between grades 7 and 9. Grade point average is found to be positively related to self-esteem independent of sex, grade and social class. Participation in organizations is not found to be independently related to self-esteem.

The perception of parental support, permissive disciplinary practices and normative control attitudes are found to be positively related to adolescent self-esteem. Adolescents' perceptions of parental interest factors are generally related to parental self-reports of interest. The independent parental self-reports, however, are found to be unrelated to adolescent self-esteem, or are related at much lower levels than are the adolescent perceptions of interest. It is concluded that parental appraisals take on meaning for adolescent self-evaluations only when this interest is perceived by the adolescent.

The perceptual congruence of adolescent reports of parental interest with parental reports is found to be unrelated to the sex, grade level and academic performance of the adolescent or to family position or authority structure, but is positively related to affect. The advisability of examining perceptual factors in family

research is noted.

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It is painfully apparent that the social scientists who have set for themselves the task of unraveling the consequences of child-rearing practices are faced with a problem with infinite complexities.

(Becker, 1964: 201)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study deals with a basic methodological weakness in research on adolescent self-esteem which has significant implications for certain assumptions of symbolic interaction theory and for current approaches employed in family research. The symbolic interaction approach stresses appraisal by significant others as an essential factor in the process of self-concept development and self-evaluation.

Research is reviewed which indicates parental interest to be a type of appraisal which influences the self-esteem of adolescents. Much of this research has relied upon information regarding parental behavior which has been obtained from the adolescents. In this study it is argued that an adequate assessment of the effect of parental interest on self-esteem requires data from both adolescents and parents. Knowledge of both parental interest and parental interest as perceived by the adolescent increases the ability to predict the self-esteem of adolescents.

Evidence that perception of family interaction varies among family members draws into question the adequacy of reports of parental behavior by adolescents. The availability of a set of data containing responses from both

adolescents and parents enables this study to measure parental interest and the adolescent's perception of parental interest independently, and to compare their distinct and interacting influences on self-esteem. By this means the relative explanatory power of the "perceived reality" of the adolescent on his self-concept is checked against the "perceived realities" of the father and mother. Consideration is also given to other factors considered to be antecedents of self-esteem.

Data from about 500 families are used to explore the influence of parental interest, perceived parental interest and perceptual congruence on adolescent self-esteem, controlling for specific social structural, developmental and competence variables.

The thesis is organized into seven chapters. In chapter 2, current research literature related to self-concept theory is reviewed, self-esteem defined, and the major antecedents of self-esteem are discussed. The third chapter indicates the empirical problems dealt with in this study, and summarizes the propositions which have been drawn from the theoretical review, and which are organized into a deductive theoretical model. Chapter 4 describes the methods employed to test the theoretical model. It contains a description of the sample, defines the operational measures,

constructs hypotheses and outlines the analytical procedures which are used. The findings are reported in chapters 5 and 6. The final chapter summarizes the findings, draws out salient conclusions, notes the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for further work in the area.

CHAPTER 2

ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM: DEFINITION AND ANTECEDENTS

Chapters 2 and 3 give attention to three interrelated concerns: the systematic review of pertinent research literature regarding self-esteem; the identification of central theoretical and methodological issues which call for attention; and the development of a deductive theoretical model of propositions drawn from the current literature and proposed for examination in this study.

This chapter reviews the salient conceptual and theoretical issues dealt with in recent literature on adolescent self-esteem. Chapter 3 offers a critique of the methods employed in much of this research, and presents an alternative research design. Propositions developed throughout these two chapters are summarized at the end of chapter 3.

The summary of research literature in this chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, self-esteem is defined as the relatively stable evaluative dimension of the self-concept which functions as a mediating process between social determinants and individual

behaviors. The second section identifies four major classes of antecedents of self-esteem, and discusses each in detail.

THE NATURE OF SELF-ESTEEM

The need for clarification

Adolescent self-esteem has received a great deal of attention in recent social psychological literature (Coopersmith, 1967; Gecas, 1971, 1972; Rosenberg, 1965; U'Ren, 1971). Much of this research is closely related to "self" theory, and to a resurgence of interest in the self-concept (Wylie, 1961; Gergen, 1971).

At the outset of the last decade, Wylie (1961) criticized self-concept research for its lack of theoretical and methodological clarity, factors which have prevented the development of cumulative empirical findings. Wylie made three suggestions for improving this situation: first, more specific theoretical constructs and specific definitions; second, the objective definition of self-referents; and third, precise linkage of theoretical statements and lower order hypotheses. Regarding methods, she advocates the development of more limited and valid measuring instruments; research designs which employ analysis of variance; and the avoidance of sole reliance on self-report data. This thesis

can be viewed as a segment of this larger task of seeking clarification in theory and research related to the self-concept.

Evaluative dimension of the self-concept

Just as individuals develop conceptions of the physical and social world, so do conceptions concerning the self emerge in the process of individual development and social interaction. The study of the social psychological processes involved in the emergence of self-conceptions has been reviewed systematically by Wylie (1961, 1968) and Tagiuri (1969). Self-esteem is frequently dealt with as being identical to the self-concept. This study, however, recognizes self-esteem as only one component of the self-concept, namely self-evaluation. For the purposes of this study, self-esteem is defined as attitudes of approval or disapproval toward oneself regarding such qualities as personal worthiness, competence and significance (Coopersmith, 1967). An individual with high self-esteem does not view himself as superior to others, but has attitudes of self-acceptance and self-respect. Rosenberg (1965: 31) identifies self-esteem as being not "better than others", but as being "good enough". High self-esteem includes such feelings as worthiness and competence. Low self-esteem, in contrast, is associated with lack of self-

respect, self-dissatisfacton, unworthiness, and feelings of incompetence. A person with low self-esteem has negative, judgmental and critical attitudes toward himself.

> When we speak of high self-esteem, then, we shall simply mean that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy; he does not necessarily consider himself better than others, but he definitely does not consider himself worse; he does not feel that he is the ultimate in perfecton but, on the contrary, recognizes his limitations and expects to grow and improve.
>
> Low self-esteem, on the other hand, implies self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt. The individual lacks respect for the self he observes. The self-picture is disagreeable, and he wishes it were otherwise (Rosenberg, 1965: 31).

The process of self-evaluation involves social comparison. Assessments of self-worth are made through comparison with the attributes of other persons (Festinger, 1954; Gergen, 1971). This process, however, is also operative on an internal or symbolic level. Criteria of evaluation, learned in the socialization process, are employed for self-evaluations. Self-attitudes emerge from comparisons with specific attributes, values or aspirations (Gergen, 1971). High self-esteem results when achievements approach aspirations in valued areas of behavior (Coopersmith, 1967).

The comparative nature of self-evaluation was

initially expressed by William James (1892: 187-188):

> Our self-feeling in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be and do. It is determined by the ratio of our actualities to our supposed potentialities; a fraction of which our pretensions are the denominator, and the numerator the successes;
>
> $$\text{thus, self-esteem} = \frac{\text{success}}{\text{pretensions.}}$$

The comparison of actual achievements with hoped for expectations remains essential to our understanding of self-esteem. The Q-sort measurement technique, for instance, derives directly from the conception of self-esteem as a self-ideal discrepancy (Rogers and Dymond, 1954; Stephenson, 1953; Turner and Vanderlippe, 1958). Self-evaluations, then, are based not only upon actual qualities or performances, but also upon the comparative criteria which are operative.

Multi-dimensional and global aspects

The multi-dimensionality of self-esteem was recognized by James (1892) who indicated self-regard to be dependent upon specific attributes used for evaluation. One might value himself highly as a guitar player, but low as a typist; or feel adequate about his facial features, but anxious about his height. Self-esteem also varies with the situation in which a person is located (Gecas, 1972). A person may feel adequate in the presence of his peers, but

have more critical self-feelings in a classroom or before those superior to himself. Gecas found adolescent self-esteem to vary with situational context: in a classroom, with one's family, with a best friend, in heterosexual relationships, with adults. Self-esteem may also vary with the criterion employed for self-evaluation. Coopersmith (1967) differentiates self-concepts based upon competence, significance, virtue and power. Using factor analysis, Gecas (1971) identified two dimensions of self-esteem: self-esteem worth and self-esteem power. These various dimensions of self-esteem are consistent with notions that the self consists of multiple conceptions of the self (Gergen, 1971).

Self-esteem is also commonly considered a global self-assessment. Gergen (1971) views self-esteem as having both global and multi-dimensional qualities. Gordon and Gergen (1968) describe the multi-dimensional approach as placing an emphasis upon self-esteem as a process, whereas the global approach tends to stress self-esteem as a structure within the self-concept. The global approach recognizes that though self-esteem may vary according to the attribute, situation or quality, that a relatively consistent and stable self-evaluation contributes to predictability and social coherence. The strain for consistent self-conceptions has been noted by Lecky (1945). The tendency to eliminate inconsistent self-conceptions is

also implied in the theories of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). Cottrell (1969) suggests that conflicting self-conceptions are managed through a cardinal or central self-system. The global approach, then, accentuates those processes which sort out the more central and consistent aspects of the self-concept in contrast to marginal self-conceptions subject to variation according to the situation or attribute. An excellent discussion of this problem is presented by Gordon (1972: 23) in which he comments:

> ...the global evaluative dimension (self-esteem) is held to be more comprehensive and general than any of the particular elements (of the self-concept) such as social identities, body images, the sense of competence, of self-determination, of unity, of moral worth, of personal autonomy, etc. on which the overall sense of worth might be based.

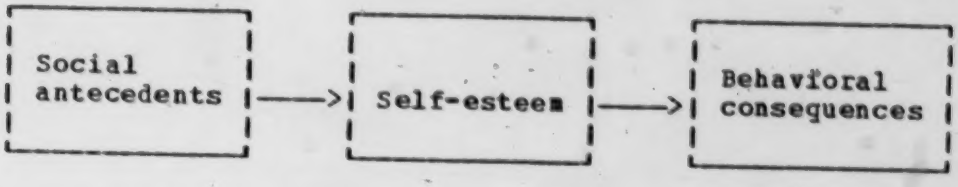
Some knowledge exists concerning the relationship between global and specific dimensions of self-esteem. Gecas (1971, 1972) found a correlation range of from +0.41 to +0.65 in self-esteem across five situational contexts, and self-esteem worth and power to be correlated +0.50. Coopersmith (1967) found little variation in self-assessment based upon specific qualities as compared to his global measure. Simmons, Rosenberg and Rosenberg (1973) found global self-esteem to be more stable over time than specific indicators. Though the multi-dimensional nature of self-esteem is acknowledged, this thesis maintains that treating

self-esteem as a global assessment has utility in social research. A unidimensional self-esteem scale developed by Rosenberg (1965) is used in this study.

Intervening role of self-esteem

The maintenance of positive self-appraisals functions to motivate much individual behavior (Crowne and Marlowe, 1964; Marlowe and Gergen, 1969; Shibutani, 1961). Rogers (1951) describes "self-regard as the cardinal link intervening between a person's social world and his reactions to this world" (Marlowe and Gergen, 1969: 600). The assumption that self-esteem is an intervening condition operative between specific social determinants and individual behaviors has given rise to research on the antecedents and the consequences of self-esteem.

Figure 2.1. Self-esteem as an intervening condition.



One body of literature gives attention to the behavioral consequences of different self-conceptions. High self-esteem has been found to be positively related to satisfaction and effective interpersonal behavior (Hansen and Maynard, 1973; Purkey, 1970; Rosenberg, 1965; Wylie,

1961). The positive effect of high self-esteem on socially integrative behavior underlines the value of research on the self-concept. In their reader on self-theory, Gordon and Gergen (1968: 3) comment:

> ...one of the more compelling reasons for studying the self has been the common surmise that behavior is guided and modulated by internal processes.... psychological process is commonly felt to precede behavioral output.

Another body of research has sought to identify the antecedents of self-esteem. What are those socialization processes, social conditions, and interpersonal relationships which give rise to feelings of self-worth and adequacy? It is this problem which is given primary attention in this thesis.

ANTECEDENTS OF SELF-ESTEEM

A basic assumption of the quest for antecedents of self-esteem is that the self-concept is learned in social interaction. The study of socialization gives attention to the processes by which individuals develop adequate role performance, and to the conditions which influence personality attributes. Socialization can be approached from the viewpoint of examining those influences which prepare individuals for social roles in society, or from the

viewpoint of studying the factors which shape organisms into selves able to enter into interpersonal relationships effectively (Broom and Selznick, 1963: 91; Smith, 1968). The development of personality attributes does not unfold simply from internal, biological or psychological processes, but takes shape in interaction with the social environment. Social competence, personality traits and self-conceptions are learned phenomena, influenced by the cultural, social and interpersonal forces to which an individual is exposed. The configurations of the social environment have systematic effects upon individuals. Thus specific antecedents can be expected to have predictable effects on the self-concept.

In this study the influence of four categories of antecedents of self-esteem are reviewed: social structural, developmental, competence and appraisal. Following the method of theory construction developed by Burr (1973), concepts are clarified and relationships reformulated throughout this review as propositions. These propositions are summarized into a propositional inventory at the end of chapter 3. From this theoretical model hypotheses are developed in chapter 4 for empirical testing.

Four comprehensive propositions structure the organization of this part of the thesis.

Proposition 1. Variations in social structure influence adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 2. Developmental processes of individual growth influence adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 3. Personal competence influences adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 4. Appraisal by significant others influences adolescent self-esteem.

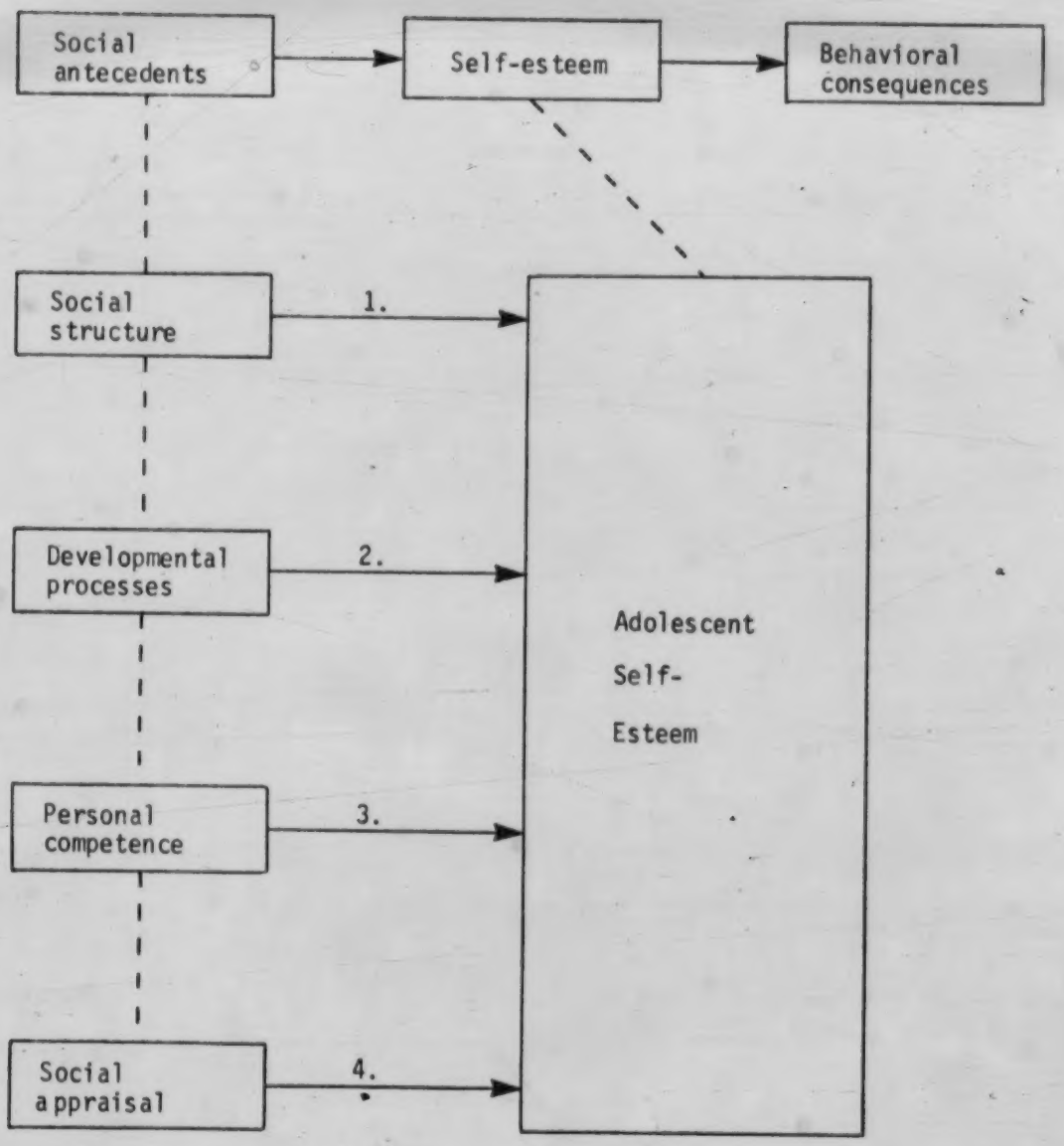
These propositions are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Social structural antecedents

Two hypotheses have been forwarded to explain the relationship of self-esteem to features of the social structure, the stratification hypothesis and the subcultural hypothesis (Rosenberg, 1965). The stratification hypothesis assumes social class, religious, racial and other social groups to differ in prestige, and that self-esteem derives from the status of the groups with which an individual is associated. The subcultural hypothesis assumes that the particular values, norms and behavior patterns of these groups influence self-concepts. Rosenberg sought evidence for these hypotheses by examining the distribution of self-esteem in a number of social class, ethnic and religious groups.

Socio-economic status. Some studies have found a positive relationship between social class and adolescent self-esteem. In Rosenberg's study (1965), 51% of upper class

Figure 2.2 Social structural, developmental, competence and appraisal influences on adolescent self-esteem.



adolescents had high self-esteem, compared to only 38% in the lower class. Coopersmith (1967) found a positive, but not significant relationship between social class and self-esteem in his study of pre-adolescent boys. Gecas (1971) found a similar non-significant relationship between social class and his measures of general self-esteem and self-esteem worth.

Drawing upon the insight of Kohn and Carroll (1960) that upper class parents tend to be more supportive of their children than lower class parents, Rosenberg (1965) introduced parental interest into the relationship between social class and parental concern. The relationship between social class and self-esteem was reduced considerably when controlling for parental support. Similar findings are reported by Gecas (1971: 477):

> Middle-class respondents have slightly higher SE means than do lower class subjects, especially for SE Power. They also perceive their fathers as somewhat more controlling and supportive than do lower-class respondents. Girls receive more parental support and less control than do boys in both social classes.

It seems likely that any influence of social class on self-esteem can be attributed more to differential socialization patterns rather than to status generalization. A proposition concerning the intervening role of child-rearing and discipline patterns on self-esteem by specific social groups

is stated later. The general expectation that social class will be related to adolescent self-esteem is stated below.

Proposition 1.1 Socio-economic status positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

Racial group. Rosenberg (1965) found substantial differences in self-esteem among racial and ethnic groups. These differences, however, were independent of the social prestige of specific groups. Blacks, for instance, did not have particularly low self-esteem. Heiss and Owens (1972) compared the self-images of blacks and whites in a national U.S. sample, finding little difference. They attributed differences in self-esteem to the interpersonal environments of subjects rather than to the prestige of their ethnic or racial group. Bachman (1970) found black tenth grade boys to be noticeably higher in self-esteem than whites. Again it appears likely that examining differential patterns of interaction, rather than prestige rankings of social groups, will be more fruitful for obtaining clues concerning the etiology of self-esteem.

In a recent study, Gecas (1973) found self-esteem to differ between migrant Mexican workers and those living in their home villages. Although the migrant workers were better off economically than the non-migrant group, they had lower self-esteem. Gecas attributes this difference to

differential frames of reference employed by the two groups. The non-migrants compared themselves to other Mexicans in their village, whereas the migrant workers compared themselves to the situation of white farm workers. The immediate social context in which an individual is embeded appears to affect self-appraisals.

The stratification thesis appears to be too simplistic to account for variations in self-esteem among specific racial groups. Knowledge concerning the community structure and interpersonal environment of individuals is more likely to enable the prediction of self-evaluations than broad social categories such as race and social class. In the data examined in this study, information regarding racial background is not readily available, so no propositions regarding race are examined. Some of these issues, however, are related to the influence of religious preference on self-esteem.

Religious preference. The influence of religious preference on adolescent self-esteem was explored by Rosenberg (1965). He assumed that self-esteem would be related to the relative prestige of various religious groups, predicting higher self-esteem among Protestants, then Catholics, then Jews. He found, however, that Jewish adolescents exceeded both Protestants and Catholics in self-esteem, with no

differences between the latter groups. Part of this finding is attributed by Rosenberg to socio-economic status, as Jews in his sample are disproportionately distributed in the upper class. Upon analysis, however, he concluded that a higher level of interest among Jewish parents was responsible for the high self-esteem. Interest by fathers was particularly marked in the Jewish group. Jewish parents of both sexes reported a particular concern for their sons, with the result that Jewish boys tended to have significantly higher self-esteem than either Jewish girls or gentile children. Bachman (1970) also reports high self-esteem among Jewish adolescent males.

Coopersmith (1967) also examined the influence of religion on self-esteem. Although no significant differences in self-esteem were found among the members of the three major religious faiths, Jews had slightly higher esteem than either Protestants or Catholics. He attributes this to the character of the interpersonal relationships in social groups:

> The findings for religion indicate that the members of a minority group who elsewhere rank lower in prestige ratings are more likely to be high in self-esteem than are the members of more numerous, prestigious, or dominant religious groups. These results suggest that the psychological bases of esteem are more dependent upon close, personal relationships and the immediate environment than upon material benefits

> or prestige rankings in the community at large. In effect, they suggest that the definition of success is a matter of personal interpretation rather than a direct and immediate consequence of one's social status and affiliation, and that it is the experiences within one's own social reference group that determines one's social definition of success--not the broader social context (Coopersmith, 1967: 86).

The importance of the "experiences within one's own social reference group" is explored in another direction by Rosenberg. Assuming members of minority religious groups to be more subject to criticism and discrimination than majority groups, he hypothesized that a "dissonant religious context" would contribute to low self-esteem. A dissonant context exists when an individual associates with a minority group which is surrounded at the neighbourhood or community level by a dominant, majority religious or ethnic group. The expected relationship was supported in his study. Minority groups in dissonant situations were also found to be subjected to social criticism and discrimination.

Going beyond the standard "Protestant, Catholic, Jew" trichotemy, Bachman (1969, 1970) differentiates among Protestant groups. Higher self-esteem scores were found among Episcopalian and Presbyterian adolescents, with relatively lower scores among the Baptist, Methodist and Lutheran groups. This finding tends to indicate some

relationship between self-esteem and liberalness of Protestant group. Protestants can be arrayed on a continuum from liberal to conservative to fundamentalist (Larson and Johannis, 1967). More conservative Protestants tend to stress the orthodox Christian belief that man is innately sinful, lacking intrinsic worth. Liberal Protestants are more likely to value human beings as worthy and capable. These beliefs may influence the emergence of self-esteem in adolescents associated with the various Protestant groups.

This discussion suggests that religious preference is not likely to have a major effect on adolescent self-esteem. Such subcultural factors as parental interest, dissonant religious context and liberalness of religious perspective are suggested as operative intervening conditions which influence self-esteem.

Proposition 1:2 Religious preference influences adolescent self-esteem, and this is a positive relationship with liberalness of religious preference, and an inverse relationship with religious dissonant context.

Proposition 1:3 The influence of socio-economic status and of religious preference on adolescent self-esteem is associated with subcultural variations in parental interest, in that higher socio-economic status and religious liberalness positively influence parental support, and negatively influence parental control.

Propositions 1 to 1.3 are illustrated in Figure 2.3.

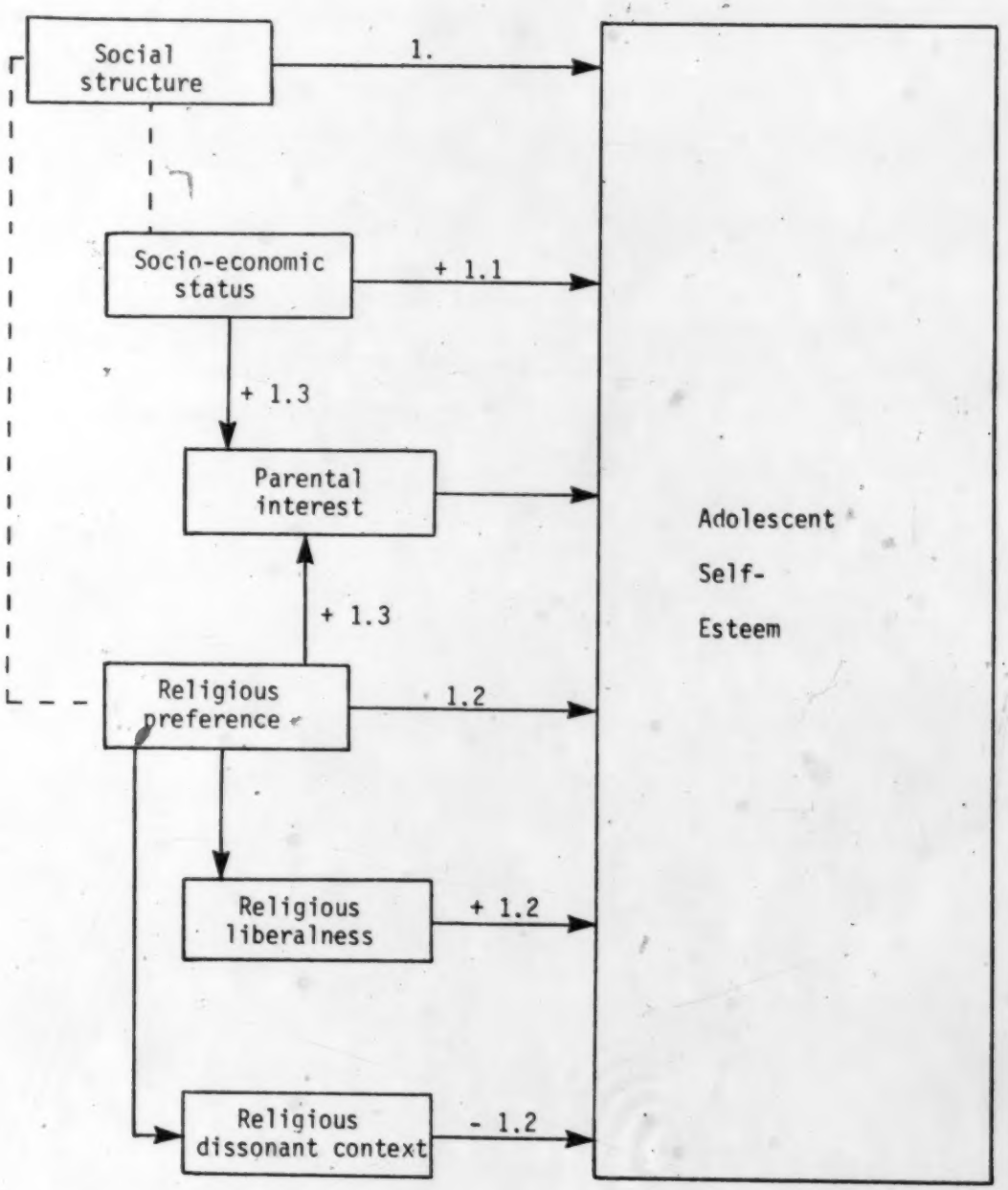
In summary, it is suggested that self-esteem is affected by an individual's position in the social structure, as defined by such factors as socio-economic status, ethnic or racial group, or religious preference. Variations in self-esteem are attributed to subcultural norms, values and socialization practices of these groups, rather than to prestige rankings. Propositions concerning social class and religion have been stated.

Developmental antecedents

The attempt to account for self-esteem in developmental processes has led to the consideration of such factors as physical features, age, school grade and sex. These indicators are related to the common assumption that self-conceptions are tied to growth and maturation experiences which occur through the typical life cycle.

Physical characteristics. Adler's (1927) classic discussion of the "inferiority complex" relates negative self-attitudes to organ deformities or other physical characteristics which are distasteful or held in disrepute (Coopersmith, 1967). Cooley (1902) also proposed a relationship between self-feelings and appearance. A variety of empirical studies has

Figure 2.3 The influence of social structural factors on adolescent self-esteem.



examined these assumptions. Jourard and Secord (1953) found a positive relationship between satisfaction with body parts and self-attitudes in a sample of college students. Douvan and Adelson (1966) reported adolescent girls to be particularly concerned about their physical appearance in arriving at self-concepts. In his study of pre-adolescents, Coopersmith (1967) found no association between self-esteem and teachers' assessments of physical attractiveness, nor with height. Positive relationships were found, however, for motor skills, robustness and coordination. The possession of socially-valued physical attributes appears to contribute to an individual's sense of self-worth as age increases.

Age and grade. Although physical, cognitive and sexual maturation rates are not consistent among adolescents, age and grade level can be used as rough indicators of developmental changes. The increased body size and physical, social and intellectual capabilities which mark the developmental growth process have been related to a pattern of increasing self-worth throughout childhood and adolescence. Long, Henderson and Ziller (1967: 205) theorized that:

> Because of physical size and intellect, motor skills increase with age in middle childhood, it is proposed that the child's conception of his own importance will increase as he grows older. A positive relationship between self-esteem

and age is thus hypothesized.

In their findings, they report a general increase in self-esteem between the first and sixth grades marked by a sharp decrease in grade two, and a slight decline in grades five and six.

This general pattern of increasing self-esteem was found to continue during the adolescent period (Long, Ziller and Henderson, 1968). Engel (1959) found positive self-evaluations to increase over a two year period in a sample of 172 grade 8 and 12 public school children, a finding corroborated by Piers and Harris (1964). Simmons, Rosenberg and Rosenberg (1972) found entrance into junior high school to be associated with a marked decrease in self-esteem, followed by a steady recovery period through grade 12. Early adolescence, then, appears to be marked by a disturbance in the self-image. Popular conceptions of adolescence as a time of "storm and stress" (Hall, 1904) and later adolescence as a period of identity crisis (Erikson, 1959) can be attributed in part to social factors. The transition from the familiar and stable social system of the elementary school to the more impersonal and less-protected environment of the junior high school in which the new student has low status, contributes to negative self-attitudes. This transition coincides with the onset of puberty, likely making the adolescent highly susceptible to disturbances in

the self-image.

Sex role. Increasing awareness that males and females are subjected to differential socialization patterns makes it imperative to consider sex role factors which influence self-esteem.[1] Although distinct modes of self-concept development have been identified for males and females (Douvan, 1960; Lynn, 1961, 1962; Terman and Tyler, 1954) inadequate attention has been given to sex role differences in the emergence of self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) and Bachman (1969, 1970) confine their studies to male subjects. Simmons, Rosenberg and Rosenberg (1972) do not differentiate by sex.

Some studies have found self-esteem to be independent of sex role at the high school level (Engel, 1959; Carlson, 1965) and at the college level (Turner and Vanderlippe, 1958). Kohn and Fiedler (1961), however, found

---

[1] In this study the term "sex role" is used to designate "a person's behavior patterns and personality traits typical of one sex or the other in a given cultural and social environment" (Brown and Lynn, 1966: 59). Brown and Lynn attempt to clarify concepts used to describe human sexual development by distinguishing between the biological-constitutional component of sex differences and the sex role component which derives from environmental conditioning and social learning. The implication for this study is that differences in self-esteem can be attributed to distinct sex role socialization patterns associated with the sexes rather than directly to biological distinctions.

middle-class females at three levels, high school seniors, college freshmen and college seniors, to have higher self-esteem scores than men. Terman and Tyler (1954: 1098) report an early study by Smith (1939) of children aged 8 to 15 in which "girls' opinions of themselves [became] relatively less favorable." Talland (1955), Rosenberg (1965) and Wylie (1963) found boys to have higher self-evaluations than girls.

Thus the current literature presents conflicting and confusing results. According to Wylie the lack of uniform self-concept measurement instruments prevents generalization from the research regarding sex role differences in self-esteem. She concludes that:

> More attention should be paid to the theoretical reason why boys and girls should be expected to differ in self-concept with regard to the particular dimension chosen (Wylie, 1968: 772-3).

Different maturation rates, criteria of self-evaluation and parental child-rearing practices may account for any differences in self-esteem between adolescent males and females.

Girls tend to be more advanced than boys in their rate of physical, intellectual and social development, up to and including the junior high school years. In about that period, boys begin to catch up to girls in maturation, and

even to surpass them in height and other physical characteristics. These developmental factors may contribute to higher levels of self-esteem for girls early in adolescence, and comparatively higher self-esteem for boys later in the adolescent period. The general developmental growth and maturation associated with advances in age and grade should result in an increase in self-esteem over time during the high school years. But the patterns can be expected to differ for boys and girls.

Proposition 2. Developmental processes influence adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 2.1 During adolescence, increases in age and grade are positively related to self-esteem.

Proposition 2.2 Sex role influences the relationship between age and self-esteem: in early adolescence, females have higher self-esteem; and in later adolescence, males tend to have higher self-esteem.

Sex differences in self-esteem, however, are likely rooted not only in differential rates of development. Sex role expectations present unique socialization experiences for boys and girls in North American society. Bronfenbrenner (1961:260) suggests that distinct cultural values shape sex role expectations for boys and girls: "The boy is being prepared to mold his world, the girl to be molded by it." Initiative, independence and autonomy are encouraged for boys. Dependability, dependence and

compliance are encouraged for girls. These expectations influence the criteria upon which self-evaluation is based by males and females, as well as influencing the behavior of parents toward their sons and daughters.

At the high school level, girls tend to shift their criteria for self-evaluation from personal achievement to social relationships (Garai, 1970; Greenglass, 1973). There is evidence, for instance, that high school girls increasingly fear successful academic performance as such achievement produces a conflict regarding future roles (Horner, 1970; Kimball, 1973). Komarovsky (1946) and Wallin (1950) found many college women pretending to be intellectually inferior to their dates. On the basis of these insights, it can be expected that as girls progress through high school, they will tend to base self-evaluations upon their success in social relationships more than upon academic performance.

Proposition 2.3 Sex role influences the criteria used for self-evaluation: girls tend to base self-evaluations on successful social relationships; boys tend to use achievement factors such as academic performance.

Sex role stereotypes for boys and girls also influence parental child-rearing practices. Bronfenbrenner (1961) found that while girls receive more affection and

praise, boys are subjected to more achievement demands and physical punishment, particularly by fathers. These parental behaviors toward their children are designed to achieve the desired sex role expectations. Boys are given less support, to encourage independence; and less control to encourage initiative and autonomy. Assumed to be more dependent, girls are provided more support; and assumed to be more vulnerable, girls are subjected to more control. Gecas (1971) suggests that girls are more closely related to parents than boys, and thus are more dependent upon parents for their self-esteem.

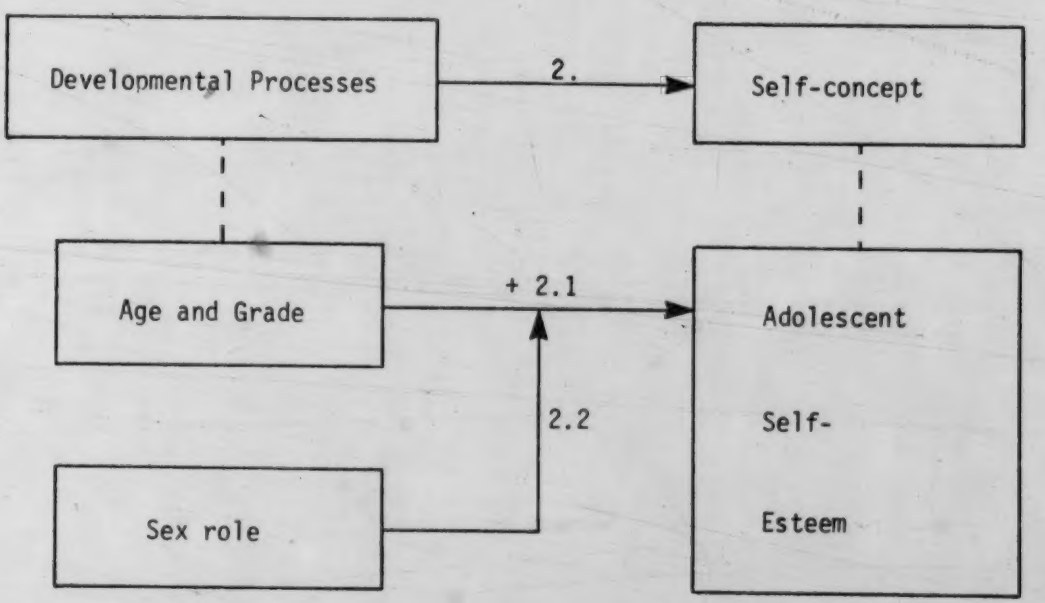
Proposition 2.4 Sex role influences the effect of parental interest on self-esteem: and this is a positive relationship for adolescent girls.

Propositions 2.1 and 2.2 from this section on developmental antecedents are illustrated in Figure 2.4. Propositions 2.3 and 2.4 anticipate some of the issues raised in the following sections which deal with competence and parental interest, and are illustrated in those sections.

Competence antecedents

In the above sections, social structural patterns and the developmental processes associated with age, grade and sex role have been discussed as sources of self-esteem.

Figure 2.4 Developmental influences on adolescent self-esteem.



A third focus of research relates self-esteem to experiences of success and failure in the learning process. The successful performance of tasks is intrinsically rewarding, resulting in feelings of efficacy and competence. White uses the term "competence" to refer to "an organism's capacity to interact effectively with its environment" (1959: 54). Feedback concerning the consequences of one's actions contribute to a sense of mastery over the physical or social world.

> When action is focalized, intended and effortful, and when it produces effects on the environment toward which it is aimed, the consequent experience includes feelings of efficacy, a feeling of power to be an effective agent (White, 1965: 209).

Expanding on this theme, Gladwin (1967) considers the development of competence to involve: first, the ability to learn and use a variety of alternatives to reach a given goal; second, the ability to comprehend and utilize a variety of social systems within a society; and third, effective reality testing consisting of unimpaired perception and sophisticated understanding of the world.

The concept of competence includes not only the manipulation of physical objects, but effectiveness in interpersonal relationships (Weinstein, 1969). Interpersonal competence refers to the ability to actively control the

outcomes of interaction episodes (Foote and Cottrell, 1955, 1969). Thus the achievement of one's goals and purposes in relationship with both objects and persons in the environment may result in feelings of competence.

The successful mastery of the environment results in feelings that one is able to cope with new and unfamiliar tasks. The failure to develop such capacities and skill may result in a sense of inability to take on new tasks without apprehension.

> Launched on the right trajectory, the person is likely to accumulate successes that strengthen the effectiveness of his orientation toward the world while at the same time he acquires the knowledge and skills that make further success more probable. His environmental involvements generally lead to gratification and to increased competence and favorable development. Off to a bad start, on the other hand, he soon encounters failures that make him hesitant to try. What to others are challenges appear to him as threats; he becomes preoccupied with defense of his small claims on life at the expense of energies to invest in constructive coping. And he falls increasingly behind his fellows in acquiring the knowledge and skills that are needed for success on those occasions when he does try (Smith, 1969: 277).

Smith articulately differentiates between theories of self-evaluation based upon the intrinsic effects of satisfaction in one's activities, and that based upon the reflected appraisals and rewards of significant others. These sources of self-esteem are inevitably complementary and

intertwined.[2]

> Apart from the diffuse background of bodily awareness, the child's sense of self would appear to have its origins in two distinguishable sorts of input....One is the feedback that the child gets about the effects of his actions on the world of physical objects and people....The other is feedback from the mirror of social response and appraisal, as emphasized by the great names in the symbolic-interactionist tradition (Smith, 1968: 302).

While the data available make it difficult to separate these two factors, the isolation of competence influences will be sought by selecting indicators which relate to task performance and interpersonal adequacy. Academic performance and participation in school activities are linked fairly directly to the concept of competence discussed in this section.

Proposition 3. Competence positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 3.1 Academic performance positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 3.2 Participation in school activities positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

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[2] Of interest here is Rosenberg's discussion of "unconditional self-acceptance" in which self-worth is independent of exceptional social, intellectual or athletic success. The case of the "younger minority boy" is cited as an example of a basic feeling of self-worth being derived from the care and affection of significant others, rather than from positive appraisal based upon objective achievements (Rosenberg, 1965: 107-127).

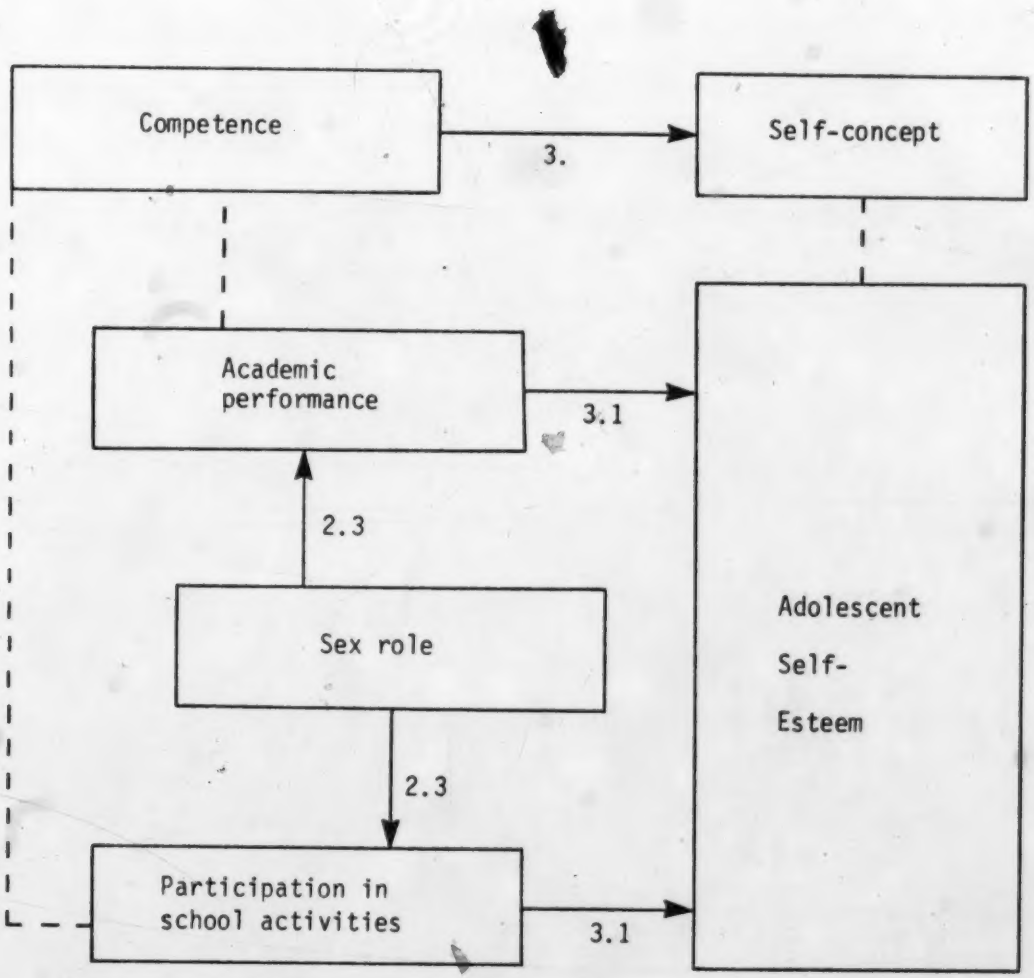
These propositions, and proposition 2.3, are illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Appraisal antecedents

The role of the appraisals of significant others in the development of self-esteem forms the central conceptual interest of this thesis. Whatever social structural, developmental and competence factors are involved, the process of self-evaluation is mediated by the attitudes of others toward oneself. Cooley's theory of the "looking glass self" was one of the earliest statements of this idea.

> In a very large and interesting class of cases the social referent takes the form of a somewhat definite imagination of how one's self--that is any idea he appropriates--appears in a particular mind, and the kind of self-feeling one has is determined by the attitude toward this attributed to that other mind. A social self of this sort might be called the reflected or looking-glass self:
>
> Each to each a looking-glass
> Reflects the other that doth pass.
>
> As we see our face, figure and dress in a glass, and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with them according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be; so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, and are variously affected by it (1902: 184).

Figure 2.5 The influence of competence factors on adolescent self-esteem.



He distinguishes three elements to this self-idea: the imagination of one's appearance to another; the imagination of the other's judgment of that appearance; and some sort of self-feeling.

The concept of the social self has been elaborated by G.H. Mead (1934). In the process of social integration, an individual internalizes the ideas and attitudes of others including attitudes concerning himself. The individual comes to regard himself in the same manner in which he is regarded by significant others. Self-attitudes, therefore, are derived from the reflected appraisals of others. The self-esteem of an individual is a result of the concern and respect with which he has been treated by key individuals in his social relationships. The very emergence of a sense of self is dependent upon the social world in which an individual is embedded. "He becomes a self in so far as he can take the attitude of the other and act toward himself as others act" (Mead, 1934: 171).

The ideas of Cooley and Mead form the basis of what has come to be called symbolic interaction theory.[3]

---

[3] The symbolic interaction perspective is represented by such writers as Rose (1962), McCall and Simmons (1966), Lindesmith and Strauss (1968), Manis and Meltzer (1967), Blumer (1969); and is summarized as an approach to family study by Hill and Hansen (1960), Stryker (1959, 1964), and Nye and Berardo (1966).

Symbolic interaction perspective. The symbolic interaction approach regarding the self-concept has been summarized by Kinch as a series of postulates (Kinch, 1973: 84-87).

1. The self-concept is based on the perceived responses of others.

2. The individual's conception of himself functions to direct his behavior.

3. The individual's perceptions of others' responses are a fairly accurate reflection of the actual responses that the others are directing toward him.

4. The actual responses of others are based on evaluative responses to the individual's behavior.

A solid body of research based upon the symbolic interaction perspective has demonstrated the influence of the appraisals of significant others on the self-concept (Couch, 1958; Dornbusch and Miyamoto, 1956; Quarantelli and Cooper, 1966; Sherwood, 1965).

Conceptions and evaluations of the self are learned in interaction with significant others. Individual identity takes shape in a series of relationships with primary and secondary socialization agents. The mother-child relationship is the earliest and most basic in the process of identity. Other family relationships, with the father, and siblings constitute another primary source of self-

conceptions. Peer and school relationships constitute a further set of influences, as do the larger social structures of work and adult associations.

Adolescents, as distinct from other children in earlier stages of the life-cycle, have not only experienced the family situation, but have entered into intense peer relationships revolving particularly around the school, and are emerging into adult and work associations (Campbell, 1969). Each of these networks of relationships influence the adolescent's self-concept, and are worthy of examination. This thesis is limited, however, to an examination of the influence of parental relationships on adolescent self-esteem.

Parental Interest. The continuing and pervasive influence of parents as significant others for adolescents has been persuasively demonstrated (Bowerman and Kinch, 1959; Brittain, 1963; Gottlieb and Heinsohm, 1973; Larson, 1972a). In the last decade, the role of interaction with parents in the self-concept development of adolescents has been explored in three major monographs and a series of articles: Coopersmith (1967), Bachman (1969, 1970), and Gecas (1971, 1972), Rosenberg (1965).

Rosenberg (1965) gives attention to the influence

of the interest a parent has in his child, as indicated by the parents' knowledge of their child's best friends, reaction to school grades and the amount of participation adolescents are allowed in mealtime conversation. He found these three indicators of parental interest to be consistently related to positive self-esteem in a sample of 5,000 New York state high school males and females.

Coopersmith (1967) and Gecas (1971) confirmed the positive influence of parental interest on adolescent self-esteem, further refining the treatment of parental interest. Coopersmith's study, though confined to a small sample of pre-adolescent boys, is impressive in its thorough review of theoretical concerns, and the usage of a variety of data collection methods. Included in his study is a large section on the influence of parental behavior on self-esteem. Of particular note are his findings concerning parental control. In contrast with popular conceptions of childrearing, Coopersmith found that "the parents of children with high self-esteem are significantly less permissive than are the parents of children with less self-esteem" (1967: 183). He states:

> ... we can conclude that the parents of children with high self-esteem are concerned and attentive toward their children, that they structure the worlds of their children along lines they believe to be proper and appropriate, and that they permit relatively great freedom

> within the structures they have established (1967: 236).

The self-esteem of pre-adolescents appears to be enhanced not only by parental warmth and concern, but also by the establishment and flexible enforcement of rules by parents. Coopersmith proposes that explicit controls provide for greater internalization of controls, establish a clear definition of the environment, and symbolize the interest of the parents. It is important to note that the regulatory procedures of the strict parents referred to by Coopersmith, though firm, clear and demanding, cannot be considered rigid and restrictive, nor are they associated with the use of physical punishment and other punitive methods of discipline. The demands made by the parents apparently provide the child with a coherent image of expectations and ideals with which he is able to compare himself in the process of self-evaluation.

Parental interest: support and control. Gecas (1971) employs the dimensions of parental support and control in his study of adolescent self-evaluations. Based upon a model of child-rearing behavior developed by Schaefer (1959), parental support refers to a continuum of behavior extending from love, acceptance, warmth, affection, understanding and the use of reasons and explanations in discipline, to rejection, hostility, coldness, neglect and lack of communication and

understanding. Parental control is characterized by restrictiveness, demands for obedience, strict enforcement of rules and punitiveness versus permissiveness, granting of autonomy and freedom, and the absence or non-enforcement of rules. Schaefer's model is illustrated in Figure 2.6. This model is discussed and revised by Becker (1964) in an insightful summary of research on parental discipline.

Gecas (1971) administered questionnaires to 620 male and female adolescents, aged 16 and 17, from five suburban high schools near Minneapolis, to study the effects of parental support and control on adolescent self-evaluations. Parental support is strongly and consistently related to a number of measures of adolescent self-esteem. Control, however, is generally unrelated to adolescent self-evaluations. Although Gecas found the interaction of support and control to have no distinctive effects on self-esteem, inspection of his data indicate that the highest self-esteem means are found among adolescents who report both high support and control (Gecas, 1971; Table 2, page 474). In light of Coopersmith's (1967) findings concerning parental control, Gecas suggests that further attention to the distinctive qualities of parental control is required to assess the specific effects of this factor. A distinction between firmness, in the sense of strictly enforcing rules and regulations; and flexibility, which permits freedom

Figure 2.6 A theoretical model for the circumplex of maternal behavior.

Figure 1. A theoretical model for the circumplex of maternal behavior. (*Source:* Schaefer, 1959, page 232.)

within these limitations, is suggested.

In light of these findings, a number of propositions are proposed regarding parental interest and adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 4. Appraisal by significant others influences adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 4.1 Parental support positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

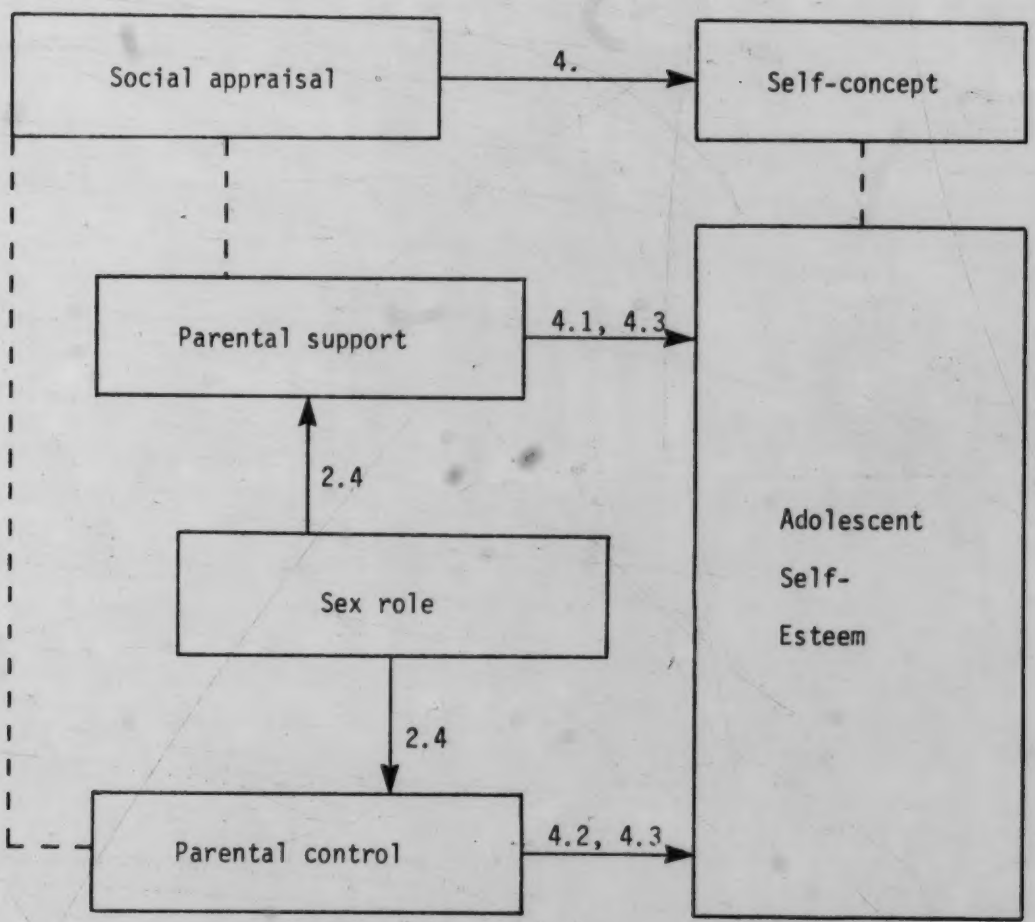
Proposition 4.2 Parental control positively influences adolescent self-esteem, and this relationship is positively influenced by the flexible enforcement of normative controls.

These propositions are illustrated in Figure 2.7, including proposition 2.4 regarding sex role interaction.

SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed selected research on adolescent self-esteem. The need for theoretical and methodological clarification in research on the self-concept has been emphasized. Self-esteem has been defined as the evaluative dimension of the self-concept, as having both global and multi-dimensional aspects, and as performing an intervening function in social interaction. Some of the key antecedents of self-esteem have been identified in social structural, developmental, competence and social appraisal sources. Particular attention has been given to the

Figure 2.7 The influence of parental interest on adolescent self-esteem.



influence of parental interest on the self-esteem of adolescents. Two dimensions of parental interest, support and control, have been distinguished.

Propostions stating causal relationships have been abstracted from the the literature under review. These propositions, first, deal with the influence of various social structural, developmental, competence and social social appraisal factors on self-esteem. Secondly, various conditions affecting the relationship between parental interest and adolescent self-esteem have been identified, including parental support and control.

The next chapter discusses some methodological issues, distinguishes between the measurement of parental interest from adolescent responses and from parental self-reports, introduces theory and research regarding person perception, and forwards propositions which link perceptual theory to family interaction and the self-esteem processes. At the conclusion of chapter 3 the propositions are summarized in a propositional inventory, and illustrated in a theoretical model.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

RESEARCH DESIGNS

Methodologically, most of the research reviewed in chapter 2 treats parental interest as an independent variable which influences adolescent self-esteem, the dependent variable. It is common in much of this research for the adolescent to be used as the source of information for both the independent parental interest indicators, and for the dependent self-concept measures. Rosenberg (1965), Bachman (1969, 1970) and Gecas (1971, 1972) have each employed this method. Coopersmith (1967) relies upon both the responses of children and extensive interviews with mothers for data concerning parental behaviors. The practice of inferring the "stimulus," or independent causal factor, and the "response," or dependent factor, from the responses of the subject is called a response-response design (Wylie, 1961). This design is in contrast with stimulus-response designs which use independent sources of data for the independent and dependent variables.

Research of the response-response type assumes that the attitudes or behaviors of another person can be adequately inferred from the responses of the subject

(Wylie, 1961: 17). Kinch, for instance, explicitly states as a postulate that, "The individual's perceptions of others' responses are a fairly accurate reflection of the actual responses that others are directing toward him" (1973: 87). The adequacy of this method is also defended on the basis that phenomenological understanding of a situation is more influencial on an individual's behavior than the "actual" situation as defined by some objective measure. Features of the environment "as the subject sees it" are considered more significant for self-attitudes than the environment as defined by some other participant or observer. Gecas (1971: 471) uses this rationale to justify inferring parental interest from the responses of adolescents.

> From the symbolic interaction perspective, it is less relevant to establish the nature of the actual environment to which the individual is exposed than to ascertain the distinguishing features of his perceived world. Since the child interprets the interaction between himself and his parents, it is his own definition of the situation that is most significant for him.

Wylie (1961: 13) questions the adequacy of response-response designs. First, response-response correlational designs are unable to distinguish the temporal priority of independent factors, therefore are limited in making "if-then" causal inferences. Secondly, obtaining data for independent and dependent variables from the same

subject inadequately controls for attributes of the informant which may interact with these factors, giving rise to spurious relationships.

Response-response designs are particularly susceptible to distortions due to social desirability and response set (Wylie, 1961, chapter 1). In the case of the relationship between parental interest and adolescent self-esteem, for instance, adolescents appraising themselves highly may also attribute socially desirable qualities to others, and as a result infer positive interest on the part of their parents. Parental interest, as perceived and reported by the adolescent, may be a function of the adolescent's self-esteem, rather than self-esteem being a function of parental interest.

Bronfenbrenner, Harding and Gallwey (1958) have noted the influence of self-esteem on person perception. Elkind (1967) proposes that the egocentrism of adolescents impedes accurate perception of others, including parents. Carlson (1965) links egocentrism with low self-esteem, adding credence to the possibility of inaccurate perception of others on the part of adolescents. Jourard and Remy (1955) studied the relationship between self and body satisfaction, and parental evaluations, employing student responses of parental evaluations. They suggest that

parental attitudes be assessed independently of the perception of subjects in order to ensure against systematic perceptual distortion.

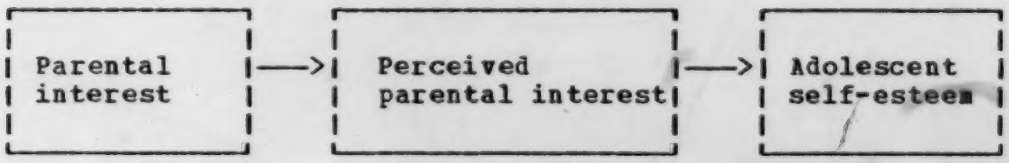
To add clarity to these realtionships, Wylie advocates research designs which distinguish between a stimulus as defined by the experimenter (Stim-E) and as perceived by the subject (Stim-S). The relationship between Stim-E and Stim-S is to be determined before attempting to predict relationships between Stim-E and other factors. Drawing upon Wylie's suggestion, this study differentiates parental interest (reported by the parent) and perceived parental interest (reported by the adolescent) in order to assess the accuracy of perceptions of parental interest by adolescents, and to clarify the influence of these perceptions on self-evaluation. It is argued that while parental behavior indeed influences the self-concept of adolescents, this behavior is interpreted and filtered by the adolescent.

From the symbolic interaction perspective, the interpretation the adolescent gives to his parents' actions constitutes the perceived reality which has formative influence on his self-conception. A simple causal relationship between parental behavior and the personality development of children does not give due credit to the

interactive nature of human relationships. Similarly, inferring parental behaviors from adolescent perceptions does not give due credit to possible distortions in person perception by adolescents. The methodological separation of parental behavior and adolescent perception of that behavior enables a clearer conception of the influence of person perception upon self-concept development.

In the literature reviewed, positive relationships between parental interest, perceived parental interest and adolescent self-esteem are assumed.

Figure 3.1. The influence of parental interest and perceived parental interest on adolescent self-esteem.



PERCEPTION OF FAMILY INTERACTION

The methodological shortcomings of research designs which fail to take account of possible perceptual distortions are of growing concern in the study of the family. Safilios-Rothschild (1969,1970) severely criticizes the tendency of family researchers to rely upon only one informant in the family, typically the wife-mother, for data regarding family behavior. The common practice of settling

for one family member's perception of family behavior has perpetuated what Safilios-Rothschild has called "wives' family sociology." Children are also frequently employed as informants concerning family behavior. The interviewing of wives or children is convenient and less-costly, as they are more accessible than complete family units. Less complex analysis is also made possible, since only one set of responses has to be dealt with. Data from only one family member, however, provides only a partial picture of family behavior.

The limitations of such procedures become readily apparent with the discovery that reports concerning family phenomena vary widely from family member to family member (Larson, 1972b). Discrepancies between husbands and wives regarding decision-making vary from 15-30% (Heer, 1962), to 23-64% (Wilkening and Morrison, 1963), to 76% (Safilios-Rothschild, 1969). Children's reports also vary by sex and age (Hess and Torney, 1962; Turk and Bell, 1972).

While a great deal of information is emerging regarding differential perceptions of family power, comparatively little attention has been paid to variations in the perception of the parent-adolescent relationship. The few studies available, however, tend to indicate differences of perception between parents and adolescents. Serot and

Teevan (1961) examined the perceptions of the parent-child relationship of 102 youth and their parents and found very little agreement. Maxwell, Connors and Walters (1961) found adolescents to perceive their fathers as less interested in them than their fathers reported themselves to be, mothers to be relatively more interested, and parents in general to be more generous and concerned in them than the parents indicated. Hess and Goldblatt (1957) found adolescent evaluations of parental performance to be higher than the adults' evaluations of their own role performances.

The effect of these differential perceptions for predicting the influence of parental interest on adolescent self-esteem is crucial. In examining the relationship between parental evaluations and self-acceptance among adolescents, Helper (1958) found significantly lower correlations using parent data than did Jourard and Remy (1955), who employed student responses. Whereas Jourard and Remy found very strong relationships between student perceptions of parental concern and student self-evaluations, Helper's correlations between self-reports of parental concern and adolescent self-appraisals were only marginally significant. From this study, the concern about spuriousness due to perceptual factors would appear to be warranted.

It is apparent that the "family worlds" of various family members differ. The views of family experience by different family members is of considerable importance to an accurate understanding of family systems, and of the influence of the family on the development of its members. The discovery that the perception of family phenomena may be systematically related to the position of the family member as defined by role, sex and age, would be of considerable value in comparing the descriptions of family behavior by the various family members. Distinguishing between reports of parental interest by parents, as compared to perception by adolescents, contributes to a clearer understanding of family behavior. In the following sections, a typology of perceptual congruence classifies the perception of parental interest by adolescents, and some of the factors possibly influencing perceptual congruence are discussed.

A TYPOLOGY OF PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE

The concept of perceptual congruence is developed in this study to assist in assessing the influence of person perception on the self-concept. This concept combines indicators of parental interest and perceived parental interest into a measure of congruence. In essence, a condition of congruence is indicated when the adolescent's perception of parental interest agrees with the parent's

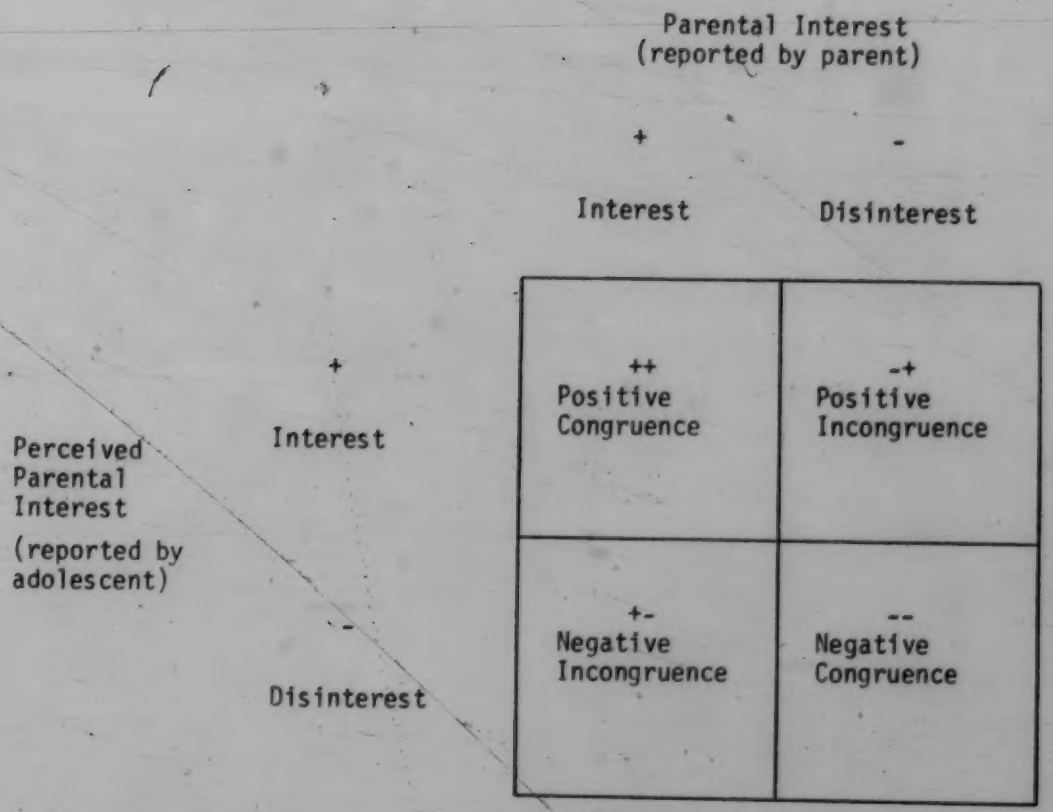
report of interest.

Four types of congruence can be differentiated (see Figure 3.2):

Positive congruence	-The parent indicates interest which is perceived by the adolescent.
Positive incongruence	-Parent indicates disinterest, but the adolescent perceives interest.
Negative incongruence	-Parent indicates interest, but the adolescent perceives disinterest.
Negative congruence	-Parent indicates disinterest; adolescent perceives disinterest.

The findings relating parental interest and adolescent self-esteem, combined with the assumptions of the symbolic interaction perspective which stress the pervasive influence of the individual's perception of a situation, would seem to suggest that high levels of self-esteem will result not directly from parental interest, but only when this interest is perceived by the adolescent. Indeed, it can be expected that high self-esteem will persist even in the absence of parental interest, if interest is perceived by the adolescent. Low-levels of self-esteem can be expected to be associated with lack of parental interest, and with the absence of perceived parental interest. On this basis, the following propositions are presented:

Figure 3.2 Typology of perceptual congruence.



Proposition 5. Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

Proposition 5.1 Parental interest positively influences perceived parental interest.

The development of self-attitudes is dependent upon appraisals by significant others, and the perception of these appraisals by an individual. The typology of perceptual congruence can be systematically related to the emergence of self-esteem in adolescents. In the condition of "positive congruence" a relationship of consensus exists between the positive appraisals indicated by the parent, and the perception of these attitudes by the adolescent. In this case the parental attitudes toward their children serve to enhance the self-evaluation of the adolescent.

When parents register disinterest in the activities of their adolescent children, but interest is perceived by the adolescent--the condition of "positive incongruence"--the adolescent exhibits a degree of autonomy from his family climate. In this case, the adolescent is defending his positive self-image in spite of negative parental appraisals; or positive self-attitudes may predispose a readiness to project positive appraisals of himself on parental figures. It may also be that high self-esteem is maintained through interaction in other

associations, such as the peer group. The psychological capacity to maintain a consistent self-image in the face of negative appraisals characterizes a stable and mature development toward individual autonomy. The expectation that positive incongruence is related positively to high self-esteem is based on this capacity to defend one's self-image. Denial or defensive processes may also be at work.

In the third condition--"negative incongruence"--the adolescent is in a family climate supportive of the development of self-esteem as defined by the parent, but does not perceive the situation in this manner. His perception of disinterest by parents may be more accurate than the parental report. Or, negative self-appraisals may result in distorted perceptions of supportive parental attitudes. The expectation that low self-esteem will be associated with these perceptions of parental disinterest follows directly from the symbolic interaction perspective relating self-attitudes to the "perceived reality" of individuals.

When parents neither report interest, nor do the adolescents perceive interest--the "negative congruence" situation--the adolescent, particularly if highly dependent upon parental appraisals to sustain his self-image, can be expected to develop a negative self-evaluation. The

following proposition is derived from this discussion:

> Proposition 5.2 Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest is systematically associated with adolescent self-esteem, in that positive congruence, positive incongruence, negative incongruence and negative congruence, in that particular order, positively influence adolescent self-esteem.

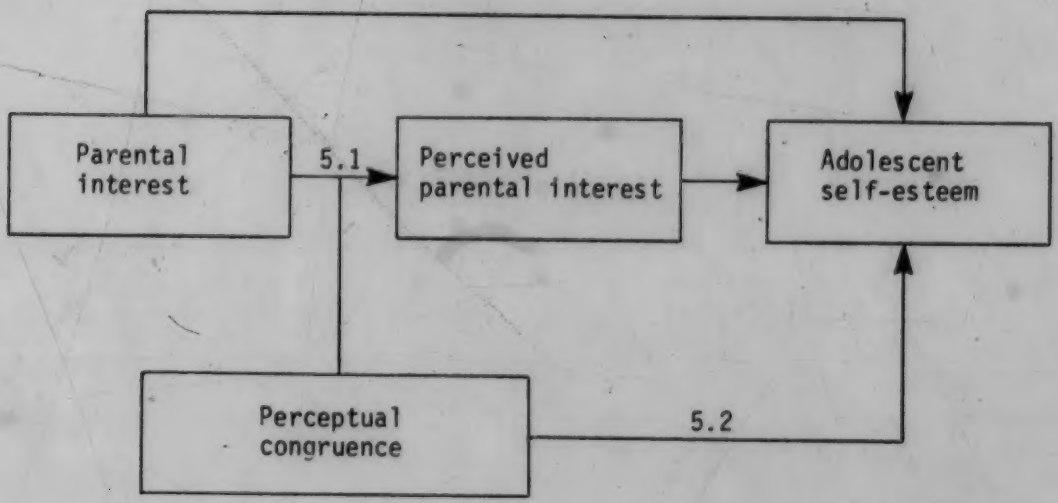
Propositions 5, 5.1, and 5.2 are illustrated in Figure 3.3.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE

In this final section, some of the factors which affect perceptual congruence are explored. Accurate perception of others is subject to conditions which characterize the person perceived, the perceiver, the situation, and the relationship which exists between the subject and object (Tagiuri, 1969). This study is concerned with a particular category of person perception, the perception by ego of the attitudes of alter toward ego. Larson et al. (1973) categorize this type of interpersonal perception as Level I. In Level II perception, ego perceives alter's perceptions of ego's perceptions of cue.

Bronfenbrenner, Harding and Gallwey (1958) have also developed a taxonomy of interpersonal perception. They distinguish three categories of <u>social objects</u>: the generalized other, a face-to-face group, and a particular

Figure 3.3 Perceptual congruence and adolescent self-esteem.



other. They also distinguish four types of referent objects, that is the objects about which judgements are being made. The case of A (judge or perceiver) assessing the attitudes of B (social object) regarding A (referent object) is categorized as first-person sensitivity. A's assessment of the attitudes of B toward B is second-person sensitivity. Third- and fourth-person sensitivity are also defined. The problem of this study involves the perceptions by a judge (the adolescent) of a particular other (a parent) regarding first-person sensitivity (attitudes of the parent toward the adolescent/perceiver). This operation takes place in the context of a face-to-face group, the family.

The family is a unique social grouping characterized by enduring relationships, intimate contact, a set of discrete positions, and both culturally defined norms in given societies and idiosyncratic norms in particular families. The perception of parents by adolescents is embedded in a specific situation which structures the relationship between the perceiver and the perceived. Parents are persons occupying unique positions of responsibility and power over children. Adolescents are dependent upon their parents, are undergoing developmental changes which involve intense self-absorption, and are in the process of redefining their relationship with parents. The application of findings concerning interpersonal

perception must be approached with these features in mind which distinguish the family from other social situations. The attempt to apply general social psychological theory to family study is done cautiously with an awareness of the complexities involved in "borrowing theory" (Larson et al., 1973).

The concept of perceptual congruence is closely related to such notions as empathy, identification and role-taking ability. Each of these concepts involve the prediction of the attitudes of others, and tend to employ measures of discrepancy or similarity between the responses of alter and the perceptions or predictions of ego concerning the responses of alter.

An examination of the factors which are likely to affect perceptual congruity of parental interest by adolescents can draw upon research concerning empathy, identification and role-taking ability, and these concepts will be used rather inter-changeably in the following discussion. Particular attention is given to the influence of similarity--particularly, sex role, inference ability, affect, power and self-esteem.

Proposition 6. Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest varies with intervening factors.

Sex Role Similarity

Similarities between a perceiver and social object tend to be related to processes of empathy, identification or role-taking ability (Nettler, 1970; Tagiuri, 1969; Wylie, 1961). Wilkins (1965: 22), as quoted by Nettler (1970: 78), affirms that "similarity between oneself and the other emerges as the single, highest correlate of predictive success" of accuracy in judging others. Frequently this relationship is attributed to assumed similarity, that is the tendency for persons to project their own characteristics on others (Bronfenbrenner et al., 1958; Cronbach, 1958; Tagiuri, 1969). The principle that similarity will increase perceptual congruence when applied to the sex of the perceiver and perceived implies that sex role similarity will enhance perceptual accuracy. Some evidence exists that perceptual congruence is more prevalent in same-sex dyads. Bronfenbrenner (1961) reported higher identification of children with same-sex parents, as did Gecas (1971).

Proposition 6.1 Sex role similarity positively influences perceptual congruence.

The sex role of both parents and adolescents can also be expected to influence perception, not because of similarity, but because of behavior patterns correlative with each role. The role of the mother, for instance,

typically brings her into more frequent contact with the children. She is more visible and accessible to them, thus can be expected to be perceived more accurately.

A number of studies indicate females to be more accurate person perceivers than males (Gollin, 1958; Stryker, 1962; Thomas et al., 1972).

Proposition 6.2 The combined effects of sex role of the parent and the adolescent suggest that: the mother-daughter sub-system will tend to be more congruent than the father-son sub-system.

Inferencial ability

Perceptual accuracy has also been related to the breadth of experience of the perceiver (Tagiuri, 1969). Cognitive capacities and inference abilities are closely related to age and intelligence. Gollin (1958) reports children of both sexes, between ten and sixteen years of age, to steadily increase their ability to draw inferences from, and to account for observations about persons in terms of concepts. Girls at all stages were slightly more advanced than boys in their use of inferences (Tagiuri, 1969: 428).

Proposition 6.3 Inference ability positively influences perceptual congruence.

Affect

Person perception appears to be enhanced when a relationship of positive affect exists between the perceived and the perceiver. Tagiuri, Brunner and Blake (1958), for instance, examined the conditions underwhich predominantly male subjects in existing small groups accurately perceived whether others in the group liked or disliked them. It was found that accuracy tended to occur, first, when the others liked the subject, and, second, when the feeling was mutual. On this basis, we can project that adolescents will be more likely to be accurate in their perception of parental interest when the relationship is mutually affective.

Proposition 6.4 Positive affect between parent and adolescent positively influences perceptual congruence.

Power

Relative power or status has been found to influence perceptual accuracy (Tagiuri, 1969; Thomas et al., 1972). Thomas, Franks and Calonico (1972) theorized subordinates to be more accurate role-takers than those with more authority, on the assumption that subordinates must role-take accurately in order to comply with the intentions of superiors. Subordinate members employ interpersonal ability to control or manage the power of superiors.

Applying this theory to the family, they assumed fathers to have more power than mothers, followed by sons then daughters. Significant findings were found for their hypothesis that, "Accuracy in role-taking will exhibit the following pattern among family members: father < mother < male child < female child" (Thomas et al., 1972: 607). This theory is consistent with findings that girls tend to be more accurate role-takers, but is inconsistent with our suggestion in Proposition 5.2 that congruence will be higher in the mother-daughter dyad. The adequacy of these alternate theories can be assessed through testing hypotheses related to each, thus the following proposition regarding power is suggested:

Proposition 6.5 Family power inversely influences perceptual congruence.

Self-esteem

Two studies suggest that self-esteem itself is related to perceptual congruence. Serot and Teevan (1961) found well-adjusted children to be more accurate perceivers than maladjusted children. Carlson (1965) suggests egocentrism to be a factor in the inability to role-take accurately. Elkind (1967) has suggested that the egocentrism of adolescents, caught up in their own identity crisis, impedes the objective perception of others, particularly

significant persons such as parents. Low self-esteem tends to be a correlate of both maladjustment and egocentrism. Weinstein (1969) also suggests that low self-esteem impedes the accurate perception of others.

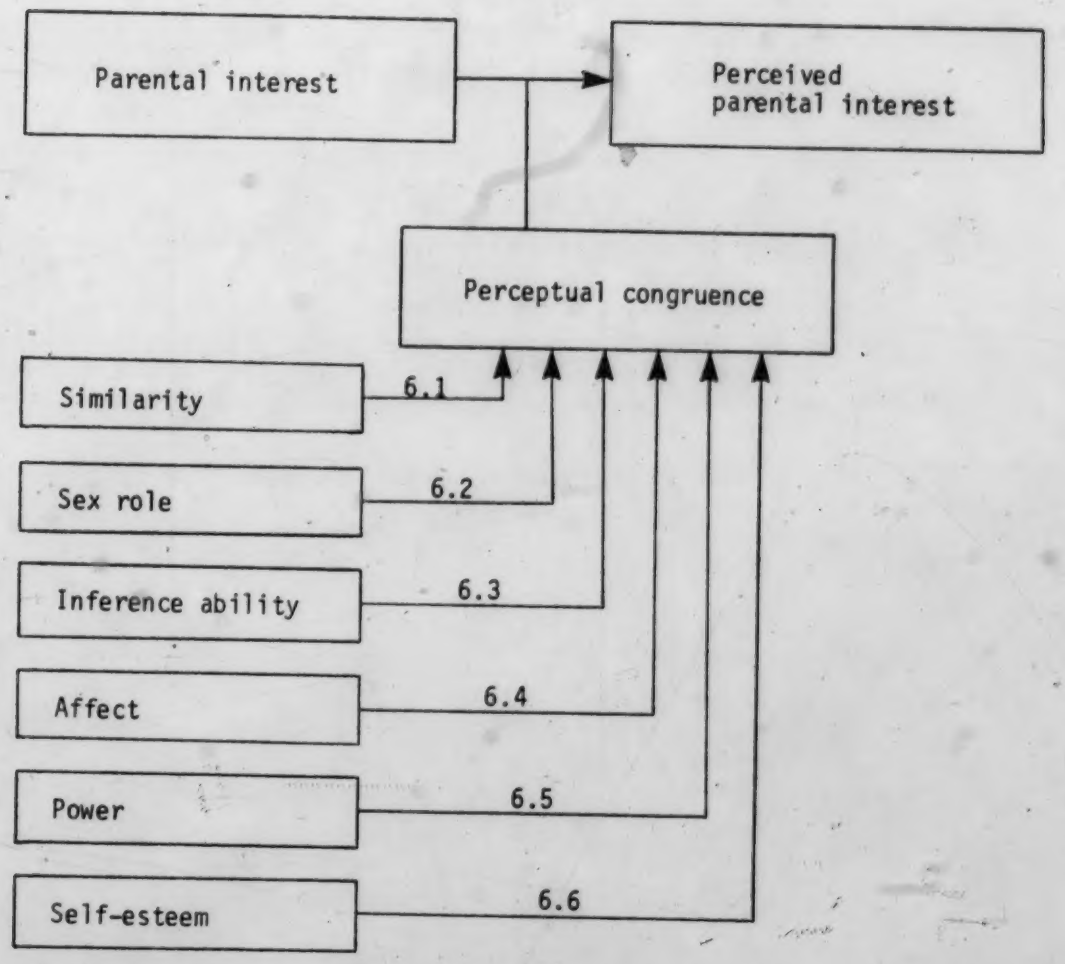
Proposition 6.6 Adolescent self-esteem positively influences perceptual congruence of parental interest.

Propositions 6. to 6.6 concerning factors which influence perceptual congruence, are illustrated in Figure 3.4.

PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE AND SELF-ESTEEM

This last proposition introduces a feedback kind of process in which a dependent variable (self-esteem) is now related to an independent variable (perceptual congruence) as a causal factor. The interactive nature of these influences reflects the complex dynamic of interpersonal relationships, in which interactive rather than causal models do more justice to the reality of human relationships. A close connection between perceptual abilities and self-esteem, as suggested in Proposition 6.6, is consistent with the conception of self-esteem of this thesis. Weinstein (1969) has suggested that self-esteem results from competence in interpersonal relationships. Competence is defined as the ability to shape the responses of others in order to maintain one's identity. These basic capacities are developed in the parent-child relationship

Figure 3.4 Factors influencing perceptual congruence.



and refined in peer and other relationships. Competence in interpersonal relationships is dependent upon role-taking ability. The ability to predict the actions of others is one factor contributing to the ability to interact effectively. Thus high self-esteem can theoretically be related to perceptual abilities.

The inability to perceive and organize one's social environment contributes to personal disorganization. In his essay on the application of symbolic interaction theory to the family, Stryker states:

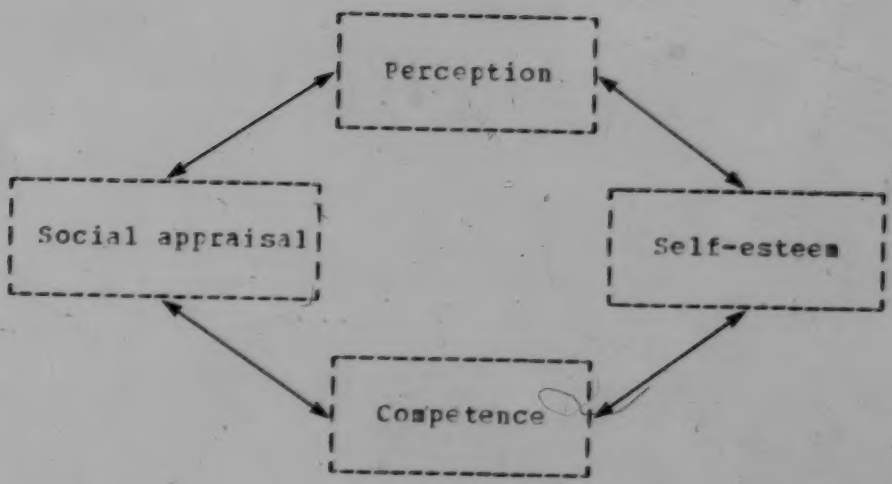
> Congruence permits efficient, organized behavior.... Personal organization is seen as a function, not simply of that which the individual carries around with him, but of the relationship between that which he carries around with him -- in the form of self-concepts -- and the situations in which he interacts with others as these are mediated symbolically.
>
> When one asks what kinds of social conditions foster or permit such congruence, the generalized answer is that when meanings are widely shared in a society, or among these persons within a society with whom one interacts, congruence is likely. What happens when meanings are diverse among others with whom one interacts? Reversing the above process, but maintaining the same principle, it may be said that incongruities in definition, and so incongruities in expectations will result, and that personal disorganization is the outcome (1959: 380).

The relationship between personal disorganization and low

self-esteem, again suggests that self-esteem and perceptual conguity will be related. The ability to perceive others accurately contributes to the achievement of interpersonal competence, one source of self-esteem. When this competence is positively appraised by significant others, the self-worth of the individual is re-enforced. An intricate, interactive relationship exists among competencey, appraisals by significant others, the perception of these appraisals, and self-appraisal. The theoretical perspective of this thesis pictures each of these factors interacting to form a syndrome of correlates with self-esteem. The conception of the sources of self-esteem has become a circular and interactive network rather than simply linear, as illustrated in Figure 3.5. These inter-relationships can be expressed as propositions:

1. The social appraisal of significant others influences the perception of social appraisal.
2. The perception of social appraisal influences the self-concept.
3. The self-concept influences behavioral competence.
4. Competent behavior influences social appraisal by significant others.

Figure 3.5. Circular network of relationships.



The direction of the causal influence also flows in the opposite direction: Self-esteem influences perception of social appraisal which in turn influences performance. It is expected, therefore, that self-esteem, competence, and the perception of interest are highly intercorrelated characteristics. The examination of the discrete series of propositions developed out of the review of literature can be viewed as a means of assessing the interacting set of mutual relationships.

THEORETICAL MODEL

This study is based upon an essential premise that self-concepts are learned, influenced by social antecedents which can be predicted to have systematic effects on self-esteem. Four categories of antecedents have been differentiated: social structural, developmental, competence, and social appraisal.

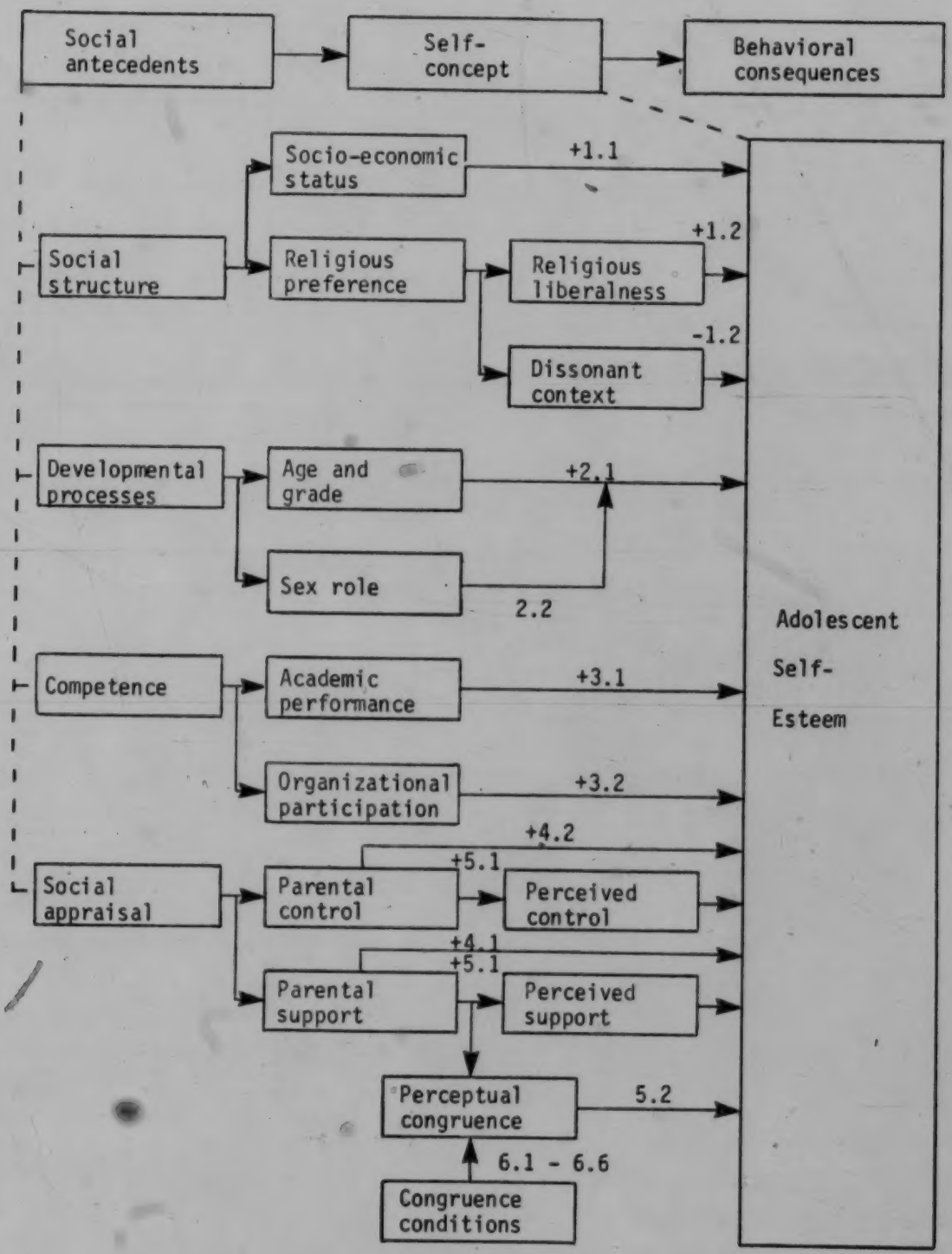
Drawing from the symbolic interaction frame of reference, the role of social appraisal has been the key focus of attention. A solid body of research indicates the pervasive influence of parental interest on the self-esteem of adolescents. The nature of this influence varies with the sex of the parent and the adolescent, and with parental

support and control as two distinct types of parental interest.

While the nature of the above relationships is positive when response-response designs have been used, this study has introduced some findings concerning person perception to assist in an adequate understanding of parental influence on adolescent self-esteem. A distinction is made between parental interest as reported by the parent, and as perceived by the adolescent. A typology of perceptual congruence is developed to examine the relationship between parental interest and perceived interest, and the effects of these perceptions on adolescent self-esteem. Selected findings from research on person perception are introduced to examine the conditions underwhich perceptual congruence occurs in family systems.

The essential relationships in this theoretical model are illustrated in Figure 3.6. The propositions developed throughout the review of literature, to be constructed as hypotheses for empirical testing, are gathered and summarized below. In chapter 4 the methods for testing the validity of these proposals are outlined including a description of the sample, the operational measures, hypotheses and analytical methods.

Figure 3.6 Theoretical model.



Propositions

1. Variations in social structure influence adolescent self-esteem.

1.1 Socio-economic status positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

1.2 Religious preference influences adolescent self-esteem, and this is a positive relationship with liberalness of religious preference, and an inverse relationship with religious dissonant context.

1.3 The influence of socio-economic status and of religious preference on adolescent self-esteem is associated with subcultural variations in parental interest, in that higher socio-economic status and religious liberalness positively influence parental support, and negatively influence parental control.

2. Developmental processes influence adolescent self-esteem.

2.1 During adolescence, increases in age and grade are positively related to self-esteem.

2.2 Sex role influences the relationship between age and self-esteem: in early adolescence females have higher self-esteem; and in later adolescence males tend to have higher self-esteem.

2.3 Sex role influences the criteria used for self-evaluation: girls tend to base self-evaluations on successful social relationships; boys tend to use achievement factors such as academic performance.

2.4 Sex role influences the effect of parental interest on self-esteem: and this is a positive relationship for adolescent girls.

3. Competence positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

3.1 Academic performance positively influence adolescent self-esteem.

3.2 Participation in school activities positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

4. Appraisal by significant others influences adolescent self-esteem.

4.1 Parental support positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

4.2 Parental control positively influences adolescent self-esteem, and this relationship is positively influenced by the flexible enforcement of normative controls.

5. Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest positively influences adolescent self-esteem.

5.1 Parental interest positively influences perceived parental interest.

5.2 Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest is systematically associated with adolescent self-esteem, in that positive congruence, positive incongruence, negative incongruence and negative congruence, in that particular order, positively influence adolescent self-esteem.

6. Perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest varies with intervening factors.

6.1 Sex role similarity positively influences perceptual congruence.

6.2 The combined effects of sex role of the parent and the adolescent suggest that: the mother-daughter subsystem will tend

to be more congruent than the father-son subsystem.

6.3 Inference ability positively influences perceptual congruence.

6.4 Positive affect between parent and adolescent positively influences perceptual congruence.

6.5 Family power inversely influences perceptual congruence.

6.6 Adolescent self-esteem positively influences perceptual congruence.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods employed to examine the validity of the theoretical perspective advanced in chapters 2 and 3. The rationale of the social scientific perspective analytically differentiates between explanation and prediction (Hage, 1972; Zetterberg, 1965). Covariation between operationalized measures constitutes the statistical basis from which explanations of social phenomena may be inferred. This chapter, then, deals with the specific means by which the relationship between inferred causal factors and adolescent self-esteem is examined.

This description is divided into five sections: issues related to secondary analysis; the sample and methods of data collection; operational measures; hypotheses; and methods of analysis.

ISSUES RELATED TO SECONDARY ANALYSIS

The secondary analysis of existing data is the primary methodological feature of this study. Hyman (1971: 1) defines secondary analysis as "The extraction of knowledge on topics other than those which were the focus of the original surveys." Such analysis presents a unique set

of possibilities and problems.

The main advantage of secondary analysis is the reduction of costs in time, energy and money for data collection. It is particularly useful when data have been carefully gathered by specialists in sampling methods, when the availability of information from different time periods makes possible longitudinal analysis, and when data from diverse societies makes possible comparative analysis. In the case of the present study, the existence of a particular set of data has itself been an impetus for embarking upon this research project. The data used in this study contain responses from more than one actor in a social situation. The availability of response data from mothers and fathers of adolescent subjects makes possible the examination of perceptual factors in family system interaction. In the case of the present study, it is this combination of ready availability of data at reduced costs, along with the multiple response feature which creates the possibility for creative research using secondary analysis.

Secondary analysis presents some problems as well. Among these problems include the inability to control for error in the sampling methods, the possible lack of validity between the theoretical concepts of the study and the operationalized measures or indicators of the original data,

and the necessity to familiarize oneself with the complexities of the research design of the original study. A secondary analyst must "live with" the methodological weaknesses or limitations of the original data as well as exploit their strengths. For instance, in the study underway, students from three junior and senior high school grades attending schools in a small Northwestern United States community constitute the sample population. Thus the research findings can be generalized only to populations possessing similar properties as this sample. Furthermore, the response rate of the parents is slightly under 50%, necessitating the comparison of student and parent responses from a much reduced sample than the total sample of adolescents. A third limitation is that the unidimensional character of the self-esteem measure makes it impossible to tap the multidimensional facets of this trait.

With regard to operational indicators, secondary analysis necessitates the search for and construction of indicies which approximate the theoretical concepts of interest. As Hyman expresses it: "The secondary analyst...must search among available indicators to find ones that fit his concepts...he must also develop methods of index construction for compressing and clarifying...data and to impose order upon the final descriptions and comparisons" (Hyman, 1971: 30-31). The linking of theoretical concepts to

indicators is determined by the features and limitations of the operational measures rather than by the theoretical insights of the researcher. The potential of secondary analysis lies in the creativity with which available indicators can be combined into new variables to express hypothesized relationships.

Thirdly, secondary analysis confronts the researcher with the necessity of "getting inside of" the conceptual frame of reference and the methodological constructions of the original researcher. In the case of this thesis, the data are extensive and complex. Choosing a limited number of indicators from among five hundred variables is in itself a perplexing problem. The complexity of the data presented numerous problems of data identification, re-assembly and analysis. Though many of these problems were made less onorous because the thesis supervisor gathered the data, his absence from the writer during much of the period of analysis minimized the outside information which may have assisted in clarifying measurement and interpretation problems.

A final problem of secondary analysis is the absence of qualitative and informal insight and impressions which are gleaned in the data-gathering process. The original researcher can make use of such qualitative

impressions to assist in the interpretation of findings. Direct contact with the subjects of the study may provide insights and clues regarding the relationships being examined. The secondary analyst does not have these informal sources of insight to give added body to his findings.

In summary, although secondary analysis may liberate a researcher from some of the restraints of time and money, "he is constrained by the indicators that the surveys already contain..." and "...may have to strain their meaning to measure variables of interest to him" (Hyman, 1971: 75). This thesis is an experience in the process of exploring the utility of secondary analysis in sociological research. The analysis of this particular set of data, with matched responses from adolescents and parents, offers a unique possibility to examine perceptual variation in family systems. The problems and limitations of secondary analysis also become evident as the methods and findings are reported.

THE SAMPLE

This study is based upon data from a larger survey conducted in 1967 by Dr. Lyle E. Larson. The original research, concerned with the general area of adolescent socialization, formed the basis for Larson's doctoral

dissertation (Larson, 1969). The data were gathered in Roseburg, a small town in southern Oregon, which had a population of about 11,500 in 1960. In that year the median educational level for males over 25 years old was grade 11.9. Over half of the employed males worked in blue-collar jobs. Frequency distributions of sample characteristics are reported in Table 4.1.

The sample population included all the junior and senior high school students present in school on the day of the administration of the questionnaire, and their parents. The sample included all the seventh, ninth and twelfth grade students, and their parents who returned take-home questionnaire packets. These three grades were chosen as representing the beginning, mid-way and the terminal stages of adolescence. The total population of each of the grades was chosen, rather than a random sample, to fit in with the class schedules of the students, and to facilitate the collection of data from the parents. There were 1,690 students enrolled in these three grades at the time of the study, representing 1,445 families. Questionnaires were completed by the students in class time at school. One hundred and thirty two students were absent at the time the

Table 4.1. Frequency distribution for seven family background variables[1]

		N	%
Sex:	Males	785	50.9
	Females	757	49.1
Grade Level:	Seventh	601	39.0
	Ninth	540	35.0
	Twelfth	401	26.0
Socio-economic Status:	I	49	8.0
	II	48	7.8
	III	156	25.5
	IV	260	42.5
	V	99	16.2
Religion:	No Church	227	18.2
	Protestant - No Denomination	42	3.4
	Jewish	1	0.1
	Catholic	167	13.4
	Fundamental Protestant	259	20.8
	Conservative Protestant	310	24.9
	Liberal Protestant	238	19.1
Family Size:	1 - 3 Children	763	49.5
	4 or more Children	779	50.5
Father's Education:	16 years or more	125	19.6
	14 years	124	19.5
	12 years	202	31.7
	11 years or less	186	29.2
Father's Occupation:	Major Professional	50	8.1
	Minor Professional	58	9.4
	Lesser Professional	142	23.1
	Clerical	115	18.7
	Skilled Labor	123	20.0
	Semi-skilled Labor	99	16.1
	Unskilled Labor	28	4.6

[1] Source: Pong, 1972: 31

questionnaire was administered, reducing the actual sample to 1,558 students from 1,338 families. Sixteen questionnaires had to be discarded, reducing the adolescent sample to 1,542 students.

Separate questionnaires for mothers and fathers were given to the students at the time of administration to be taken home, completed individually by each parent and returned by mail. Questionnaire booklets from 697 mothers and 592 fathers were returned in usable form, a response rate of about 45%. For the purposes of the present study, the responses of fathers and mothers have been matched with the individual students. In cases in which more than one student is from the same family, the respective parent responses have been matched with each student, so that in these cases responses from a common parent are utilized more than once. Because of the duplication of responses from some parents, data are actually available from 640 fathers and 746 mothers.[1] Both the mother and father data contain responses regarding parental support and control which

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[1] Of the 640 fathers, 210 have children in the sample from the 12th grade, 205 from the 9th grade and 225 from the 7th grade. Thus father data are available for 640 of the 1542 adolescents, a response rate of 42% of the fathers. Of the 697 mothers, 247 have grade 12 children in the study, 238 grade 9 children, and 261 grade 7. Thus mother data are available for 746 of the 1542 students, a response rate of 48% of the mothers.

pertain to the specific child or children in the sample. The basic unit for analysis, therefore, is not the family, but the student, and corresponding parent or parents. Of the 1542 students, 627 have both mother and father responses; 119 have mothers only; and 13 fathers only. Complete student-father-mother data are available for 41% of the adolescent sample.

The entire sample of 1542 adolescents is employed to examine relationships which rely upon data from the adolescents only. The smaller sample of adolescent-parent units is used to explore those relationships for which separate information from the parents is required.

To compare the characteristics of the adolescent-only sample with the reduced adolescent-parent sample, Student's t-test was used to measure the difference between sample means. These results are tabulated in Table 4.2. The t-test is designed to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference between sample means, and thus that two samples represent a common population. The .05 level of significance is the customary probability level. Of those variables, therefore, for which the significance exceeds .05, it can be inferred that there is a difference between the means of the samples, and that each represents a discrete, rather than a common population. Examining the

Table 4.2. Difference of means between the adolescent-only subsample and the adolescent-parent subsample.

Variable	Adolescent -only (N)	Mean	Adolescent -parent (N)	Mean	T value	Significance
Sex 1=F, 2=M	(783)	1.52	(759)	1.50	-0.55	0.583
Grade 1=7..3=12	(783)	1.77	(759)	1.10	5.26	0.000[1]
Grade Point Average 1=hi...2=lo	(765)	1.70	(735)	1.60	-3.94	0.000[1]
Self-Esteem 1=hi...7=lo	(772)	3.60	(745)	3.41	-2.56	0.011[1]
Perception of Marital Emotional Climate 1=hi...3=lo	(739)	2.05	(734)	1.92	-3.66	0.000[1]
Perception of Parental Interest 1=hi...3=lo	(759)	1.84	(742)	1.70	-3.47	0.000[1]

[1]2-tailed test of probability significant at .05 level

results, there is no significant difference only for the variable of sex. The adolescent-only and adolescent-parent samples have equivalent distributions for males and females. There are significant differences, however, for grade, grade point average, perception of marital-emotional climate and perception of parental interest. The students whose parents have taken part in the study appear to be drawn from lower grade levels, have higher grade point averages and self-esteem, and perceive their parents as having higher marital-emotional adjustment and higher parental interest than the students whose parents have not responded.

It is concluded therefore that caution should be employed in generalizing the characteristics of the reduced student-parent group to the total student sample. The fact that parents have taken part in the survey appears to reflect their apparent higher level of interest, and in terms of the proposed relationships, these students have higher self-esteem than the non-parent response group. These differences, however, may be a function of the grade distribution. The parent-response group has a higher proportion of grade seven students. And, as will be reported later, parents tend to show a decreasing level of interest as grade level increases.

It is characteristic of the t-test that its

significance increases with the size of the sample. With the large sample sizes in this study, the t-test is very sensitive, even to small differences in means. The absolute differences of the sample means is small, and therefore the samples do not represent widely different populations. It should be noted, however, that inferences concerning the total sample on the basis of the characteristics of the adolescent-parent sample can be expected to be somewhat distorted in predicted directions. Though the total sample is used in order to maximize the number when controlling for key variables, this is done with caution. Many of the central propositions therefore are tested on the reduced adolescent-parent sample only.

In summary, the sample is bound by time and geography, as well as by particular sub-sampling with regard to the response rate of parents. These limitations are noted when generalizations from the sample are made to larger populations.

OPERATIONAL MEASURES

Turning to the instruments used for data collection, Larson prepared distinct questionnaires for the students, the mothers and the fathers. Student questionnaires were completed in class time. Parent

questionnaires were sent home with the students, to be completed by parents and returned by mail. A careful record-linking system was devised by which each family was assigned a common identity number, but at the same time preserved the anonymity of the respondents. This common identity number has made possible the linking of parent response data to that of the adolescents.

Each questionnaire was pre-tested and revised to develop the final form. The questionnaires contain a diverse array of questions regarding family background, employment, education and income, the educational and occupational aspirations and expectations of the students, and the relative influence of parents, peers and teachers. Many of the indicators are included on all three questionnaires, permitting the comparison of responses. Most of the questions are constructed as Likert-type four response category items, which have been coded into three or four value variables. A sample of each of the questionnaires is included in the Appendix of this thesis. Further details regarding the questionnaire construction and data collection are reported in Larson's thesis (1969).

From among the hundreds of variables sixteen key indicators have been chosen to represent the social structural, developmental, personal competence and parental

interest concepts discussed in the theoretical model. Indicators have been selected which minimize redundancy among highly correlated variables, represent the concepts theorized as causal factors, have been isolated as important factors in previous research, and, in some cases, which are comparable to items used in other studies.

Adolescent self-esteem

Self-esteem is the key dependent variable, defined as a positive or negative attitude toward the self. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is used as the indicator. This is a seven-value Guttman scale constructed from ten questionnaire items, as developed and described by Rosenberg (1965).[2] The reproducability of the scale is 92 percent, and its scalability 72 percent. It's validity was checked by Rosenberg against a number of samples with independently measured characteristics. Concerning the scale, Robinson and

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[2] The ten items of the Rosenberg scale are:

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
4. I am able to do things as well as most people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I like myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. I certainly feel useless at times.
10. At times I think I am no good at all.

Shaver (1969: 99) comment:

> This scale appears to have been carefully constructed, and its use by Rosenberg indicates that it can make theoretically meaningful discriminations between groups of adolescents. It remains to be seen whether it can also be employed successfully in studies of adults, although the items are quite general and seem appropriate for adults as well as high school students. Research having to do with self-esteem or competence in particular areas, e.g., intelletual or athletic, would require more specific items. Studies involving the ideal self-concept probably would not be possible with this instrument either, because the items are not appropriate for describing an "ideal." However, where a short and general index of self-esteem is required, this scale is recommended.

The scale has seven values, with a score of 1 the highest level, and 7 the lowest. In crosstabulations, 1-2 are categorized as high self-esteem; 3-4, medium; and 5-7, low self-esteem.

Social structural factors

Socio-economic status is derived from Hollingshead's Index of Social Position (Hollingshead, 1957). It combines data regarding the father's occupation and education into a five-category hierarchy of social status. In crosstabulations, categories I, II and III are recoded into middle class and IV and V into the working class groupings in order to ensure adequate cell size.

Information regarding religious preference was gathered from a question requesting precise preference for a denominational group.[3] These were categorized into seven categories: No church, Protestant (no specific denomination), Roman Catholic, Jewish,[4] Fundamentalist, Conservative and Liberal Protestants. The three latter groups were recoded into an index of Protestant Religious Liberalism, arrayed on a continuum from liberal to fundamentalist. As discussed in the review of literature, these three categories of Protestants have increasingly less orthodox belief systems from fundamentalist to conservative to liberal; tend to have increasingly affirmative teachings regarding intrinsic personal worth; and are typically related to social class.

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[3] The specific item: "What is your religious preference? Note: please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If you have no religious preference, put 'none'." The Liberal Protestant category includes Episcopalian, Methodist, Presbyterian and Unitarian; the Conservative Protestant: American Baptist, Christian, Church of Christ, Evangelical United Brethren, Lutheran; and the Fundamentalist Protestant: Assembly of God, Church of God, Four Square, Open Bible, Pentecostal, Southern Baptist, Conservative Baptist, Christian Missionary Alliance, Mormon, Nazarene, Free Methodist, Community Churches, Salvation Army, Seventh-Day Adventist and Christian Science.

[4] Since only one family was Jewish, this case has been omitted from the analysis of religious factors.

Only a very indirect measure of religious dissonant context is possible. Denominations with less than majority standing in the sample are considered dissonant. As the Protestant groups constitute 68% of the sample, individuals indicating No Church, or Catholic are considered to be in a religious dissonant context.

Developmental factors

Sex is used as the indicator of sex role, with female coded 1 and male, 2. Age is coded from the lowest to the highest age. Grade is coded with grade seven as 1; grade nine, 2; and grade twelve, 3. As age and grade level are correlated +.96, grade is used as a developmental control factor when testing for the effect of third variables. In comparing developmental stages, grade 7 represents early adolescence, and grade 12 late adolescence.

Personal competence factors

An index of participation in organizations reports activities a student plans to participate in, including sports, student government and other extra-curricular activities. It is inferred that those who are active in school organizations reflect a mature development of

interpersonal competence.[5] Respondents are grouped in five categories ranging from 4 to 8 organizations in the highest group, to no organizations in the lowest. Grade point average is taken from the adolescents' own estimate of school grades. Only two categories are available: B and above, and C or below.

Parental interest factors

Parental interest is measured with separate items for parental support and control. Two types of control are differentiated, normative and disciplinary behavior. Some of these items have separate variables for fathers and mothers. Responses from the adolescents are designated perceived parental support or control.

An index of parental support combines four separate items: parental willingness, understanding, interest and knowledge. The scores of these items have been summed, yielding an index with nine values which have been coded with high support as 1, and low support 9. Responses

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[5] An attempt was made to use dating frequency as an indicator of social competence, but was discarded when self-esteem was found to be inversely related to dating behavior.

from the adolescents on these items[6] are similarly combined into an index of perceived parental support. Separate indicies of maternal support and paternal support have also been constructed, with corresponding indicies for perceived maternal support and perceived paternal support from the adolescent responses.

Measures of parental control have been chosen to tap normative and behavioral dimensions. Normative control is derived from a question concerning standards and rules for adolescents.[7] An index of disciplinary behavior combines two items from the parent behavior scale developed by Abel and Gingles (1966), regarding responses to situations about

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[6] Questions for these items are: My (parent) understands my problems. My (parent) is willing to talk with me when I have a problem. My (parent) is interested in the things I like to do. My (parent) knows the subjects I study. The responses have categories for Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly disagree.

[7] The item question is: "A young person ought to have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where not to go..." High control is indicated by Strongly agree; medium control with Agree; and low control with Disagree or Strongly Disagree.

homework and movie attendance with friends.[a] The index takes on seven values, with 1 indicating high control and 7 low control or permissiveness.

Separate control items are constructed for paternal normative control, maternal normative control, paternal disciplinary behavior and maternal disciplinary behavior. For the adolescents, attitudes regarding rules and standards are indicated by adolescent normative control. The adolescent questionnaire does not have separate items for mothers and fathers regarding disciplinary behavior, so there is only a single index for perceived parental disciplinary behavior. This rather complex set of parent

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[a] The homework situation as stated in the adolescent questionnaire is: "Suppose your parents have just heard from your teacher that you have not been completing your homework. Which one of the following would your parents most likely do?" The alternative responses are: "Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting my school work" (Punitive). "Scold me for a while, but they'd soon forget it" (Negligent). "Talk it over with me and help me decide how to meet the problem" (Acceptant). "Get angry with me and tell me it will be my own fault if I don't pass" (Rejectant). These items are conceptualized as being ordered by degree of control: rejectant > punitive > acceptant > negligent.
The movie situation is: "Suppose you want to go to a movie. Your parents refuse and you begin to argue strongly. Which one of the following would your parents most likely do?" The alternative responses are: "Let me go to avoid further argument or become angry and tell me to do as I please" (Negligent). "Let me argue but remain firm unless I had sound reasons" (Acceptance). "Not even listen to me and punish me for arguing" (Punitive). "Continue to refuse and punish me so that I'd learn not to argue" (Rejectant).

interest and perceived interest indicators is summarized in Table 4.3.

Perceptual congruence

Measures of the perceptual congruence of parental interest and perceived parental interest were constructed by combining parent and adolescent items regarding parental support.[9] Robinson (1957) has indicated that measures of agreement rather than correlation are more appropriate when comparing the ratings of separate observers. The perceptual congruence indicator essentially categorizes the combinations of agreement between parent and adolescent responses to the support items.

Separate indicies were first constructed for agreement on the four separate items of the support index: willingness, understanding, interest and knowledge. The response to the mother's indicator of willingness, for instance, was matched to the adolescent's perception of mother willingness. If both agreed that the mother was willing, the case was categorized as "positive congruence." If the adolescent perceived a higher level of willingness

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[9] Lack of exactly matching data for both adolescent-father and adolescent-mother units precludes the effective measurement of congruence for control items.

Table 4.3. Summary of parental interest variables

Type of Interest	Category of Respondents		
	Parent Reports		Adolescent Perception
Support	Parental		X
	Maternal	X	X
	Paternal	X	X
Normative Control	Parental		X
	Maternal	X	
	Paternal	X	
Disciplinary Behavior	Parental		X
	Maternal	X	
	Paternal	X	

than reported by the mother, it is categorized "positive incongruence." If the adolescent perceives a lower level of willingness than the mother reports, the case is "negative incongruence." If both agree that there is a low level of willingness, a situation of "negative congruence" exists.

A single measure of congruence was then constructed for each of the adolescent-father and adolescent-mother dyads by combining the congruence scores of the four support items. In this manner, indicies of perceptual congruence of paternal interest, and perceptual congruence of maternal interest were constructed, to indicate the four categories of congruence: positive congruence, positive incongruence, negative incongruence, and negative congruence.

With regard to the factors influencing perceptual congruence, inference ability is indicated by age and grade point average, under the assumption that the capacity to make inferencial judgments increases with age and academic performance. Affect is measured by a question regarding whether the parent likes the adolescent.[10] Family power is derived from the adolescents' responses to a question

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[10] My (parent) always acts as if he/she likes me.

regarding how decisions are made between parents.[11] The parent perceived to be most dominant is regarded the most powerful. With regard to the power of the adolescent, following the logic of Thomas, Franks and Calonico (1972), daughters are considered less powerful than sons. This examination of the effect of family power recognizes the complex problems related to the measurement of family power, and to variations in the perception of power by the different family members (Safilios-Rothschild, 1969), but will not consider these matters in depth.

HYPOTHESES

The construction of hypotheses follows the suggestions of Burr (1973). He defines hypotheses as "predictions about the relationship between the variables that are sufficiently concrete that they are empirically testable" (Burr, 1973: 18). Following Dubin (1969), each unit (or variable) in a proposition requires an emprical

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[11] Which one of the following best describes how important decisions are made in your family? 1. Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother. 2. Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself. 3. Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together. 4. Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself. 5. Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father.

indicator.

> Every time the name of a unit [variable] appears in a proposition there must be substituted for it an empirical indicator that measures values on this unit (Dubin, 1969: 212).

The hypotheses constructed below are derived directly from the propositions listed at the end of chapter 3. For each proposition, specific operational indicators are specified as measures of the concepts or variables for which a relationship is stated. In many cases more than one hypothesis is required to adequately test a given proposition. The hypotheses are numbered to correspond with the respective propositions.

Social structure factors

1.1.1 Index of social position scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

1.2.1 Religious Protestant liberalism index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

1.2.2 The relationship between religious preference and adolescent self-esteem is independent of socio-economic status.

1.2.3 No church and Catholic religious preference is less strongly related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores than is Protestant religious preference.

1.3.1 Socio-economic status is positively related to parental support, as reported by adolescents and by parents.

1.3.2 Socio-economic status is positively related to parental control and perceived parental control indicators.

1.3.3 Religious Protestant liberalism is positively related to parental support and perceived parental support.

1.3.4 Religious Protestant liberalism is negatively related to parental control and perceived parental control indicators.

1.3.5 The relationships in hypotheses 1.3.3 and 1.3.4 are independent of socio-economic status.

Developmental factors

2.1.1 As age increases, adolescent self-esteem scale scores increase.

2.1.2 As grade level increases, adolescent self-esteem scale scores increase.

2.2.1 In grade seven the proportion of females with high self-esteem exceeds the proportion of males with high self-esteem.

2.2.2 In grade twelve, the proportion of high self-esteem males exceeds the proportion of high-self esteem females.

2.3.1 The relationship between academic performance and adolescent self-esteem is greater for boys than for girls.

2.3.2 The relationship between participation in school organizations and adolescent self-esteem is stronger for girls than for boys.

2.4.1 The relationship between parental support and control indicators and adolescent self-esteem is greater for girls than for boys.

Competence factors

3.1.1 The greater the grade point average, the higher the self-esteem scale score.

3.2.1 The greater the participation in organizations, the higher the adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

3.2.2 The relationships in hypotheses 3.1.1 and 3.2.1 are independent of grade level and social class.

Parental interest factors

4.1.1 Perceived parental support index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.1.2 The parental support index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.1 Perceived normative control is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.2 Perceived parental disciplinary behavior is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.3 Parental normative control is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.3 Parental disciplinary behavior is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.5 Parental disciplinary behavior negatively influences the relationship between normative control and adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.6 The relationships in hypotheses 4.1.1 to 4.2.2 are independent of grade level and grade point average.

Perceptual congruence

5.1.1 Parental support indicators are positively related to perceived parental support indicators.

5.1.2 Parental control indicators are positively related to perceived parental control indicators.

5.2.1 The perceptual congruence index is related to the adolescent self-esteem scale scores, with the strength of the relationship varying in the following order: positive congruence > positive incongruence > negative incongruence > negative congruence.

Factors influencing perceptual congruence

6.1.1 Same-sex dyads exceed cross-sex dyads in the degree of perceptual congruence.

6.1.2 Perceptual congruence in the mother-daughter dyads is greater than the congruence in the father-son dyads.

6.2.1 As the age of adolescents increases, perceptual congruence increases.

6.2.2 As grade point average increases, perceptual congruence increases.

6.3.1 As the perception of consistent affect increases, perceptual congruence increases.

6.4.1 As the power of the perceiver increases, perceptual congruence decreases; as the power of the perceived increases, perceptual congruence increases.

METHODS OF ANALYSIS

Statistical measures of association

Two measures of association are used throughout the thesis to test hypotheses: the Pearson product-moment

correlation coefficient, and the chi square test of fit between two distributions.

The product-moment correlation coefficient provides a single statistic, ranging from -1.0 to +1.0, to measure the strength of association in a bivariate relationship. Pearson's r is a linear measure of association, and assumes a normal distribution in the variables. Pearson's r technically may be employed only with interval data. It's application to ordinal data is a subject of much dispute. The decision to use Pearson's r, rather than a nonparametric measure such as Kendall's Tau, is based upon the following rationale:

1. Some suggest that the product-moment correlation coefficient may be employed if one of the variables is interval. In the case of this thesis, the self-esteem scale is a Guttman measure which approaches the interval level of measurement.

2. Unlike nonparametric statistics, such as Kendall's Tau, the Pearsonian correlation coefficient is more typically used in further statistical procedures, such as partial correlation, multiple regression and path analysis.

3. A comparison of the results of Pearson correlation and Kendall's Tau on a selected number of relationships finds that Kendall's Tau tends to result in only slightly lower levels of association than Pearson's r. These results are presented in Table 4.4. Of thirteen relationships, there is no change or there is an increase in 5; and a decrease in 8. In four of the decreases the relationship becomes non-

Table 4.4. Selected independent variables by self-esteem, comparing Pearson and Kendall correlations.

Variable	Pearson's R (N=1542)	Sig.	Kendall's T (N=.5 sample)	Sig.
Sex	-.01	NS	-.009	NS
Age	.07	.002	.08	.001
Grade	.04	.04	.04	.055
Religious Protestant Liberalism	.07	.03	.03	NS
Religious Participation	.09	.001	.02	NS
Socio-economic Status	.03	NS	.04	NS
Number of Organizations	.08	.001	.09	.001
Grade Point Average	.14	.001	.13	.001
Marital Emotional Climate	.12	.001	.11	.001
Perceived Parental Disciplinary Behavior (Movie)	.08	.001	.04	NS
Perceived Parental Disciplinary Behavior (Homework)	.07	.001	.06	NS
Perceived Quality of Parent-Child Affect	.23	.001	.22	.001
Perceived Parental Interest	.20	.001	.15	.001

significant. Thus it can be expected that the Pearson correlations will yield slightly stronger relationships than would Kendall's Tau. This is particularly the case when the frequency distribution of a given variable is not normal. Pearson's r is more sensitive to extreme cases in a distribution. This knowledge of the relationship between Pearson's r and Kendall's Tau suggests that caution be employed when interpreting relationships, and that contingency distributions be inspected when examining key relationships.

4. Two final reasons for employing Pearson's r in spite of the fact that not all data are interval are related to programming technicalities particular to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (Nie et al., 1970). Grobben (1974) indicates that the measures of significance for Kendall's Tau in the SPSS program are incorrect, and tend to over-estimate the significance of a relationship. The significance levels are unreliable for Kendall's Tau, but are accurate for Pearson's r in SPSS.

5. Secondly, the computation of Kendall's Tau, particularly with a large number of cases, employs much more computer time and incurs much more expense, than does Pearson's r in the SPSS program.

From time to time analysis of variance in contingency table distributions of relationships is used to elaborate the relationships manifested in the correlational analysis. This is particularly necessary when nominal categories are involved. In these cases the chi square measure is used as the test of association. When more than one control variable is introduced into a relationship, partial correlations have been computed, using the pairwise deletion of missing data option (cf. Nie et al., 1970).

For both the product-moment correlation coefficient and the chi square measures, the .05 level of significance is considered the level of validation. That is, associations which exceed the .05 level of probability are accepted. At the .05 level of significance, the probability of a relationship occurring by chance is only 5 chances in 100.

Analytical procedures

With regard to methodological procedures, the analysis of data is executed in a number of stages designed to test hypotheses at increasing levels of complexity. In the first stage, the whole sample of adolescent data is subjected to correlational analysis to test the zero-order relationships between an array of predictor variables and adolescent self-esteem. In the second stage, higher order relationships among the social structural, developmental and competence factors with adolescent self-esteem are examined. In the third stage, both the adolescent and the adolescent-parent data are analyzed to test the hypotheses in section 4 regarding the influence of parental interest and perceived parental interest factors on adolescent self-esteem. In the fifth stage of analysis, the concept of perceptual congruence is introduced, and its relationship with

adolescent self-esteem tested. And in the final stage of analysis, the factors which affect perceptual congruence are examined.

The procedure outlined, then, examines the explanatory power of a deductive theoretical framework, through the testing of hypotheses. While correlational analysis is used as the basic analytical technique, the elaboration of relationships is explored from time to time through the use of contingency table analysis of variance, and the introduction of control variables into bivariate relationships. From time to time this procedure is interrupted to engage in the "pursuit of an idea" which appears to have heuristic potential (Rosenberg, 1968, chapter 8).

The first three stages of the analysis are reported in chapter 5. Matters relating to perceptual congruence are reported separately in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS: ANTECEDENTS OF SELF-ESTEEM

The findings are reported in two chapters. This chapter examines the influence of the social structural, developmental, competence and social appraisal factors on self-esteem, using both the adolescent and adolescent-parent data. Chapter 6 deals with matters related to perceptual congruence.

This chapter has three sections: zero-order relationships between predictor variables from the student data and adolescent self-esteem; higher order relationships among the social structural, developmental and competence variables; and the influence of parental interest variables on self-esteem, using both the adolescent and adolescent-parent data.

ZERO-ORDER RELATIONSHIPS: ADOLESCENT DATA

The influence of nine key factors on adolescent self-esteem is examined in this section. The independent variables are sex, age, grade, religious preference, socio-economic status, grade point average, participation in organizations, perception of parental support, perception of parental disciplinary behavior and normative control. The

expected relationships between these factors and self-esteem are stated in the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1.1.1 Index of social position scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

1.2.1 Religious Protestant liberalism index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

2.1.1 As age increases, adolescent self-esteem scale scores increase.

2.1.2 As grade level increases, adolescent self-esteem scale scores increase.

3.1.1 The greater the grade point average, the higher the self-esteem scale scores.

3.2.1 The greater the participation in school organizations the higher the adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.1.1 Perceived parental support index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.1 Perceived normative control is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

4.2.2 Perceived parental disciplinary behavior is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

To test these hypotheses, a zero-order correlation matrix is presented in Table 5.1. Using the Pearson product-

Table 5.1. Correlation matrix of predictor variables with adolescent self-esteem.+

Variables	11.	10.	9.	8.	7.	6.	5.	4.	3.	2.	1.
1. Sex++ 1=Female 2=Male	-.01	.11[3]	-.04	.02	.11[3]	.15[3]	.01	.01	-.03	.01	1.00
2. Age 1=10 9=19+	.07[2]	-.001	.004	.11[3]	.24[3]	.05	.00	-.01	.96[3]	1.00	
3. Grade 1=7 3=12	.04	-.01	.02	.08[3]	.24[3]	-.01	-.02	-.02	1.00		
4. Protestant liberalism 1=lib 2=fund	.07[1]	-.03	-.10[2]	.08[1]	.08[1]	.15[3]	.28[3]	1.00			
5. Socio-economic status 1=high 5=low	.03	.02	-.16[3]	.23[3]	.14[3]	.28[3]	1.00				
6. Grade point average 1=high 2=low	.14[3]	.09[3]	-.09[3]	.11[3]	.15[3]	1.00					
7. Number of organizations 1=4-8 5=0	.09[3]	.06[1]	-.01	.10[3]	1.00						
8. Perception of Parental Support 1=high 9=low	.27[3]	.28[3]	-.17[3]	1.00							
9. Perception of Parental Disciplinary Behavior 1=control 7=permissive	-.10[3]	-.10[3]	1.00								
10. Normative control 1=rules 4=no rules	.15[3]	1.00									
11. Self-esteem 1=high 7=low	1.00										

+ Sample size: 1542 maximum; 804 for Protestant liberalism index; 607 for socio-economic status.

++ Level of significance: 1 = <.05; 2 = <.01; 3 = <.001 (2 tailed test)

moment correlation coefficient, for the purposes of this study, a correlation of 0 - .10 is called a weak relationship; .11 - .50 a moderate relationship; and .51 - 1.0 a strong relationship, with the .05 probability level considered adequate to infer significance.

In Table 5.1, adolescent self-esteem is unrelated to sex, grade and socio-economic status. Weak significant relationships exist with age, religious Protestant liberalism and organizational participation. Grade point average, perception of parental support and normative control are moderately related to self-esteem. Perceived parental disciplinary behavior is inversely related to self-esteem at a significant, moderate level.

From the perspective of the theoretical model, this preliminary examination indicates social structural factors (socio-economic status and religion) to be only minimally related to self-esteem. This finding is somewhat consistent with the expectation that self-esteem would be related more strongly to features of an individual's immediate interpersonal environment than to prestige patterns of the larger social order.

With regard to developmental factors, sex and grade are not related to self-esteem. These are surprising findings which run counter to the expectations that self-

esteem would be positively related to increases in age and grade. Age, in fact, is inversely related to self-esteem. As age increases, self-esteem decreases. The effect of sex role over time is examined in a subsequent section.

Self-esteem is positively related to personal competence as indicated by grade point average and participation in school organizations. Both parental interest dimensions, support and control, are related to self-esteem. The perception of parental support is the most strongly related factor (+.27, p=.001). The perception of parental disciplinary behavior is inversely related to self-esteem (-.11, p=.001). The perception of normative control is positively related to self-esteem (+.15, p=.001).

The strong relationship between the perception of parental support and self-esteem is consistent with the central assumption of this study, that positive appraisal by parents enhances adolescent self-esteem. This finding provides a firm basis for the subsequent examination of the relationship between parental reports of interest and self-esteem. It is surprising, however, that adolescent self-esteem is positively related to attitudes favoring rules and regulations, and at the same time the perception of permissive disciplinary behavior by parents. This inconsistency is examined in a subsequent section.

Hypotheses 1.1.1, 2.1.1, 2.1.2, and 4.2.2 are rejected. Hypotheses 1.2.1, 3.1.1, 3.2.1, 4.1.1 and 4.2.1 are substantiated on the basis of zero-order relationships.

Scanning the correlation matrix, a large number of the predictor variables are intercorrelated. The significant correlations are:

1. Sex with normative control (.11), number of organizations (.11) and grade point average (.15).

2. Age with self-esteem (.07), perception of parental support (.11), and number of organizations (.24).

3. Grade with perception of parental support (.08), and number of organizations (.24).

4. Religious Protestant liberalism with self-esteem (.07), perception of parental disciplinary behavior (-.10), perception of parental support (.08), number of organizations (.08), grade point average (.15) and socio-economic status (.28).

5. Socio-economic status with perceived parental disciplinary behavior (-.16), perception of parental support (.11), number of organizations (.14), grade point average (.28), and religious Protestant liberalism (.28).

6. Grade point average with self-esteem (.14), normative control (.09), perceived disciplinary behavior (-.09), perception of parental interest (.11), number of organizations (.15), socio-economic status (.28), religious Protestant liberalism (.15) and sex (.15).

7. Number of organizations with self-esteem (.09), perception of parental interest (.10), grade point average (.15), socio-economic status (.14), religious Protestant liberalism (.08), grade (.24), age (.24), and sex (.11).

8. Perception of parental support with self-esteem (.27), normative control (.28), perceived disciplinary control (-.17), number of organizations (.10), grade point average (.11), socio-economic status (.23), religious Protestant liberalism (.08), grade (.08) and age (.11).

9. Perceived disciplinary behavior with self-esteem (-.10), normative control (-.10), perceived parental control (-.17), grade point average (-.09), socio-economic status (-.16), and religious Protestant liberalism (-.10).

10. Normative control with self-esteem (.15), perceived disciplinary behavior (-.10), perceived parental support (.28), number of organizations (.06), grade point average (.09) and sex (.11).

The important question is to what extent the zero-order relationships between predictor variables and self-esteem are affected by interactive associations. In the sections which follow the persistence of the bivariate relations when controlling for other factors is examined. Separate sections deal with the inter-relatedness of social class, religion and self-esteem; grade, sex and self-esteem; and the effects of grade, sex and social class on the relationships between grade point average and organizational participation and self-esteem. A major section examines parental interest factors in detail.

HIGHER-ORDER RELATIONSHIPS: ADOLESCENT DATA

Social structural factors

The finding that religious preference is related to social class (r=.27[3]) necessitates examining the effect of social class on the relationship between religious preference and self-esteem. In the zero-order matrix only an index of Protestant groups has been used to indicate religious preference. In this section other religious groupings are included, and the influence of religious dissonant context on self-esteem is also examined.

Hypothesis 1.2.2 Religious Protestant liberalism index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

The crosstabulation of religious preference with self-esteem controlling for socio-economic status is presented in Table 5.2.[1] Self-esteem does not vary at a significant level among the religious groups (X^2=4.46 p=.81). Liberal and Conservative Protestants have the

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[1] Socio-economic status has been recoded into two classes, combining classes I - III, which comprise 43% of the sample, into the middle class, and classes IV and V into the working class. The availability of data on social class from only those students whose fathers turned in questionnaires reduces the N to the smaller sample size. Jewish and unspecified Protestant cases are not included in this analysis due to small cell sizes.

Table 5.2. The relationship between religious preference and adolescent self-esteem, controlling for socio-economic status.

	No church			Catholic			Fundamentalist			Conservative			Liberal			Total		
	Socio-economic status																	
Self-esteem	M/C+	W/C++	Ttl	M/C	W/C	Ttl	M/C	W/C	Ttl	M/C	W/C	Ttl	M/C	W/C	Ttl	M/C	W/C	Ttl
	%																	
High	17.4	29.1	25.6	5.3	37.8	26.8	30.8	21.2	23.9	27.8	32.1	30.1	27.6	34.0	30.1	25.0	30.1	27.9
Medium	34.8	54.5	48.7	73.7	43.2	53.6	46.2	62.1	57.6	54.2	50.0	51.9	53.9	36.2	47.2	52.8	50.5	51.5
Low	47.8	16.4	25.6	21.1	18.9	19.6	23.1	16.7	18.5	18.1	17.9	17.9	18.4	29.8	22.8	22.2	19.4	20.6
Total N	(23)	(55)	(78)	(19)	(37)	(56)	(26)	(66)	(92)	(72)	(84)	(156)	(76)	(47)	(123)	(216)	(289)	(505)
Row % by class	29.5	70.5	100.0	33.9	66.1	100.0	28.3	71.7	100.0	46.2	53.8	100.0	61.8	38.2	100.0	42.8	57.2	100.0
Row % by religion	10.7	19.0	15.4	8.8	12.8	11.1	12.0	22.8	18.2	33.3	29.1	30.9	35.2	16.3	24.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
X^2 significance	8.43 p=.01			7.17 p=.03			1.95 p=.37			.38 p=.82			3.99 p=.13			1.76 p=.41		

X^2 Religious preference by social class = 34.64 p=000.0
X^2 Self-esteem by religious preference for middle class = 15.38 p=.05
X^2 Self-esteem by religious preference for working class = 10.33 p=.24

\+ Middle class
++ Working class

highest proportion with high self-esteem (30.1%). Fundamentalist Protestants have the lowest proportion (23.9%), with the other groups ranged in between (No church, 25.6%; Catholic, 26.8%).

Religious preference is strongly associated with socio-economic status (X^2=34.64 p=000.0), with 61.8% of the liberal Protestants in the middle class, 46.2% of the conservative Protestants, 33.9% of the Catholics, 29.5% No church and 28.3% of the fundamentalists. Religious preference is associated with self-esteem in the middle class (X^2=15.38 p=.05), but not in the working class (X^2=10.33 p=.24).

Social class does not alter the relationship between religious preference and self-esteem at a statistically significant level in the liberal, conservative and fundamentalist Protestant groups. There are significant differences between the two classes, however, for those indicating No church (X^2=8.43 p=.01) or Catholic (X^2=7.17 p=.03). In these groups <u>higher</u> socio-economic standing is associated with a <u>decrease</u> in the proportion with <u>high</u> self-esteem. For Catholics there is a marked increase in the middle class among those with medium self-esteem, with little difference in the proportions with low self-esteem. In the No church group, however, there is a large increase

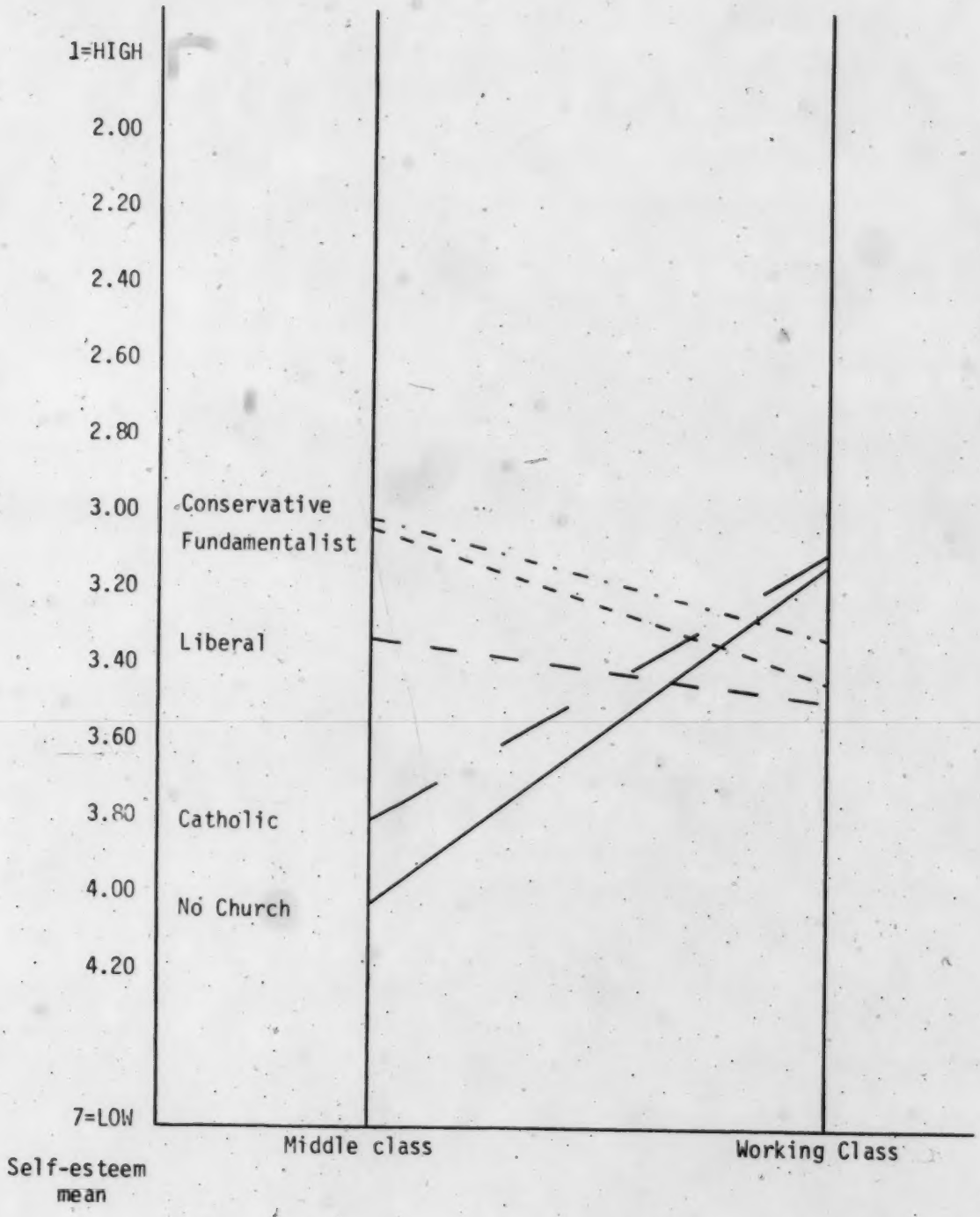
highest proportion in the proportion with low self-esteem.

Social class appears to have no interaction effect on the relationship between religion and self-esteem in some groups (liberal, conservative and fundamentalist Protestants); and suppresses the relationship in others (No church and Catholic).

These relationships become somewhat clearer using self-esteem mean scores as illustrated in Figure 5.1. In the Protestant groups, higher social class enhances self-esteem. This finding is consistent with the idea that higher higher social prestige positively affects self-concepts. In the Catholic and No church groups, however, higher social class is associated with lower levels of self-esteem, a finding which runs counter to common sense associations between class and self-evaluation. Aside from the fact that the cell sizes in some of the categories are becoming fairly small, what could account for these conflicting patterns? The concept of "religious dissonant context" appears to assist in clarifying the influence of religious preferences on self-esteem.

In the literature review the findings of Rosenberg (1965) were reported concerning the negative influence of a religious dissonant context on self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965: 64-66) defines a dissonant context as a "discrepancy

Figure 5.1 Mean adolescent self-esteem scores by religion and social class.



between..an individual's social characteristics and those of the population by which he is immediately surrounded." Particular reference is made to membership in minority religious groups at the residential neighbourhood level. In the present study, Protestants comprise 68% of the student population of Roseburg, so are by far the dominant religious group. Catholics and those with no affiliation, constituting 13% and 18% of the sample respectively, are minority groups. On this basis, the following hypothesis has been formulated to test religious dissonance:

Hypothesis 1.2.3 No church and Catholic religious preference is less strongly related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores than is Protestant religious preference.

The religious dissonant factor appears to negatively affect the self-esteem of adolescents in these groups. High social standing does not alter this effect. Indeed, it appears that identification with a religious minority, when combined with high social standing, creates a dissonance of social status which negatively affects the self-image of adolescents (Figure 5.1).

Catholics and those with no church preference are dissidents from the modal religious pattern of the Protestant majority. This dissonant status appears to have negative effects on the self-images of junior and senior high school students. Through the very indirect method of

testing this relationship, some evidence has been found which would appear to lend at least some support to the hypothesis that religious dissonant context negatively affects self-esteem.

In summary, religious preference appears to be a salient factor for the self-evaluations of students in the middle class, but not for working class adolescents. Preference for religious minority groups has a strong negative effect on the self-esteem of middle class adolescents. The influence of religious preference on self-esteem is dependent upon the status of a religious group, in terms of its majority or minority position in a given community, lending some support to the status generalization hypothesis discussed in the literature review. In a later section, it will be seen if variations in patterns of parental interest by religious and social class groups can more adequately account for variation in self-esteem than the social status factors noted here. The data available are not adequate to give conclusive evidence regarding the effect of religious belief systems on self-evaluations.

Developmental factors

The interrelatedness of developmental factors and self-esteem is stated in hypotheses 2.2.1 and 2.2.2.

Hypothesis 2.2.1 In grade seven the proportion of females with high self-esteem exceeds the proportion of males with high self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2.2.2 In grade twelve, the proportion of high self-esteem males exceeds the proportion of high self-esteem females.

In Table 5.3, the relationship between sex and self-esteem is presented, controlling for grade. The findings are complex. Looking first at the percentage distribution of the three categories of self-esteem in the three grades, there are no significant differences within each of the three grades compared to the total sample (X^2=3.58 p=.47). Twenty five percent of the adolescents have high self-esteem, 51% medium and 24% low self-esteem. This distribution is relatively constant from grade to grade.

The pattern alters slightly when the sex of the adolescents is considered. The proportion of girls with high self-esteem declines from 27.0% in the seventh grade to 22.5% in the ninth, then increases to 29.0% in the twelfth grade. For boys, however, the proportion with high self-esteem increases slightly at the mid-adolescent stage, from 23.9% in grade seven to 27.2% in grade nine, then declines in grade twelve to 21.3%. These differences by sex are significant in grade twelve (X^2=9.65 p=.008), but not in grade seven and nine. The expectation that the proportion of

Table 5.3. Distribution of self-esteem by grade, controlling for sex.

	Seven			Nine			Twelve			Total			
Self-esteem	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Total N
High	27.0	23.9	25.4	22.5	27.2	25.0	29.0	21.3	25.4	26.0	24.5	25.2	(385)
Medium	55.0	51.8	53.3	49.6	49.1	49.3	42.4	58.0	49.7	49.6	52.3	51.0	(778)
Low	18.1	24.3	21.3	27.9	23.7	25.7	28.6	20.7	24.9	24.4	23.2	23.8	(363)
Total N	(282)	(309)	(591)	(258)	(279)	(537)	(210)	(188)	(398)	(750)	(776)	(1526)	(1526)
	X^2=3.45 p=.18			X^2=2.16 p=.34			X^2=9.65 p=.008			X^2=1.13 p=.57			

X^2 Grade by self-esteem = 3.58 p=.47

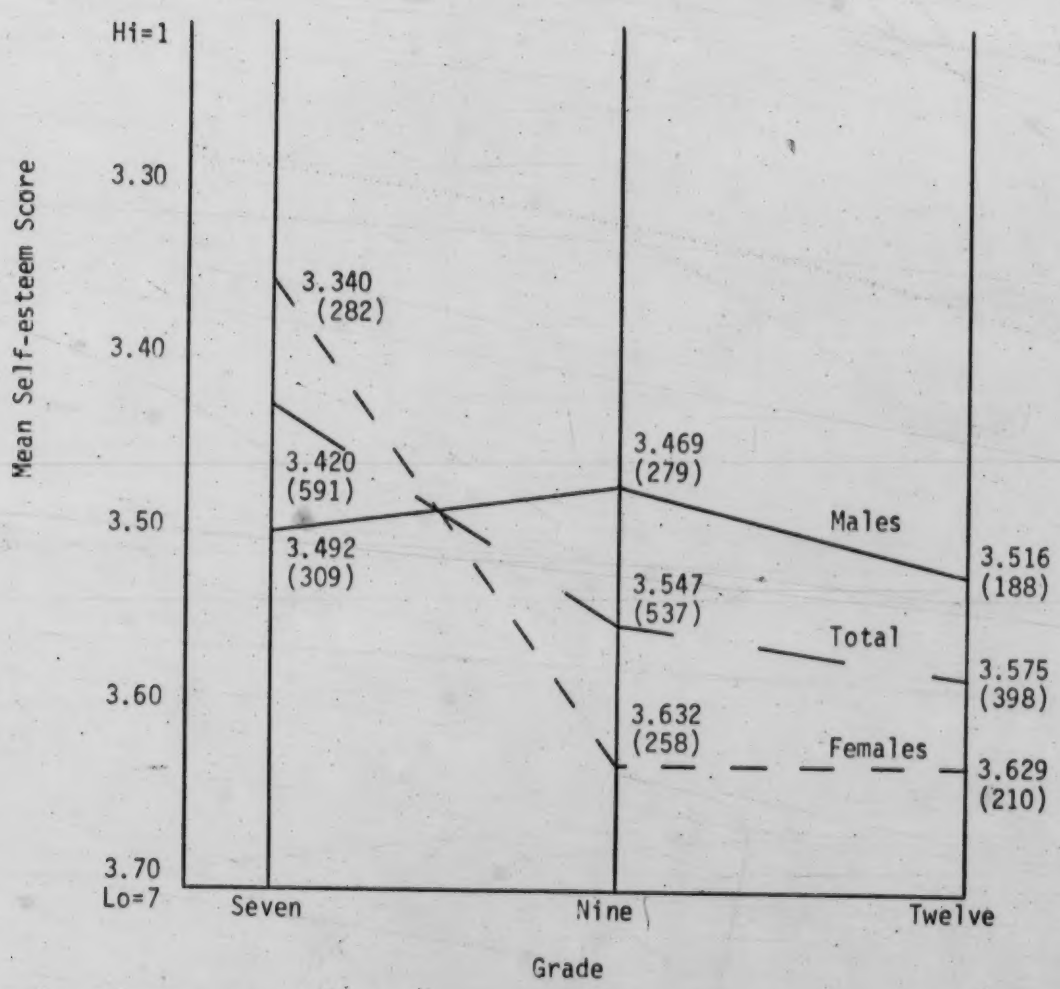
females with high self-esteem would exceed males in grade seven, as stated in hypothesis 2.2.1, is not validated.

The proportion of females with high self-esteem in grade twelve exceeds that of males by 8 percentage points, contrary to the predictions of hypothesis 2.2.2 that males would have higher self-esteem. However, the proportion of females with low self-esteem also exceeds that of males in this grade. Males have a noticeably higher proportion with medium self-esteem, 58.0% as compared with 42.4% of the females.

Whereas there is little difference in self-esteem between boys and girls in grade seven and nine, in grade twelve females exceed males in the proportions with both high and low self-esteem. Though the differences are small, there is some indication that at the outset of entrance into the work world, conceptions of self-esteem for females become more fixed at either a high or low level, while a larger proportion of boys remain in the relatively undifferentiated medium self-worth level.

The mean self-esteem scores for male and female adolescents by grade are illustrated in Figure 5.2. From this perspective, girls in grade seven have higher self-esteem than boys, decrease markedly from grade seven to nine, and then level off in grade twelve. The self-esteem of

Figure 5.2 Mean self-esteem scores for male and female adolescents, by grade level.[1]



[1] T-tests indicate that for the total sample and in each grade, there are no significant differences between means for males and females. For female adolescents differences in mean self-esteem scores between grade 7 and 9, and grade 7 and 12 are significant $p < .05$.

boys decreases slightly from grade seven to nine, then increases in grade twelve. These patterns are consistent with hypothesis 2.2.2. T-tests for differences in mean self-esteem between boys and girls indicate no significant differences. The decrease in the self-esteem of girls between grades seven and nine is statistically significant. Perhaps later analysis will be able to identify some of the factors which contribute to differential self-esteem levels by sex through the maturation processes.[2]

In summary, it was proposed in hypotheses 2.2.1 and 2.2.2 that self-esteem would increase with age and grade due to maturational development, and that this pattern would be more marked for males. The findings of Table 5.3 contradict both these expectations. For the total sample, there is no distinct change in the level of self-esteem through the grades. With regard to sex role, females significantly decrease in their level of self-esteem and develop more crystalized self-esteem attitudes over time than boys. The finding that girls enter adolescence with

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[2] The limitations of cross-sectional analysis for uncovering longitudinal patterns are acknowledged and recognized here. In another paper examining this data Raymond Pong (1975) found high self-esteem among girls in grade twelve to contribute to high aspirations. Girls who continue to have high academic aspirations and expectations persist against structural and attitudinal barriers regarding the female role, therefore must possess a high degree of self-confidence in order to succeed.

higher self-esteem means than boys, is consistent with the developmental hypothesis relating self-evaluation to maturation rates. The large decrease in the self-evaluations of girls is consistent with the perspective that females are subjected to appraisals which lead to a lowering of self-evaluations (Komarovsky, 1946; Wallin, 1950). The analysis of other predictor factors in later sections may be able to give some indication of the specific factors influencing the decline in self-esteem among female adolescent subjects as grade level increases.

Competence factors

In the zero-order correlation matrix (Table 5.1), both grade point average and number of organizations are related to adolescent self-esteem. In this section, the independent effect of these factors is examined, controlling for third variables. The appropriate hypotheses are listed below:

Hypothesis 2.3.1 The relationship between academic performance and adolescent self-esteem is greater for boys than for girls.

Hypothesis 2.3.2 The relationship between participation in school organizations and adolescent self-esteem is greater for girls than for boys.

Hypothesis 3.2.2 The relationships in hypotheses

3.1.1 and 3.2.1 are independent of grade level and social class.[3]

In Table 5.4 the relationship between grade point average and self-esteem is examined for each sex. High grade point average is associated with higher self-esteem for both males and females. It is of interest that a much higher proportion of girls than boys report high grade point averages. This difference, however, does not influence the distribution of self-esteem between the sexes.

The effect of grade point average on self-esteem differs by grade level (see Table 5.5). While self-esteem does not differ significantly from grade to grade, the effect of grade point average is most pronounced in grade seven. In grade seven 36.2% of the adolescents with high grade point averages have high self-esteem, decreasing to 27.9% in grade nine and 31.3% in grade twelve. The influence of academic performance on self-esteem is most pronounced in grade seven, followed by grade twelve. There is no significant influence in grade nine. The importance of academic performance for the self-concept appears to be most influencial in the earlier grade, at the outset of adolescent development, wanes in significance, then becomes

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[3] Hypotheses 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 predicted grade point average and organizational participation to be positively related to adolescent self-esteem.

Table 5.4. Distribution of self-esteem by sex, and by grade point average.

	Males			Females			Total		
	Grade point average								
	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total
	%								
High	31.3	22.5	26.3	32.2	21.3	24.4	31.7	21.9	25.3
Medium	48.9	49.8	49.4	48.3	53.8	52.3	48.7	52.0	50.8
Low	19.8	27.7	24.4	19.4	24.9	23.3	19.7	26.1	23.8
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total N	(313)	(422)	(735)	(211)	(539)	(750)	(524)	(961)	(1485)
Total % by Sex	42.6	57.4	100.0	28.1	71.9	100.0	29.8	70.2	100.0
	X^2=9.95 p=.007			X^2=10.15 p=.006			X^2=19.62 p=.0001		

X^2 significance for sex by self-esteem = 1.13 2 d.f. p=.57

Table 5.3. Grade point average by self-esteem, controlling for grade.

	Seven			Nine			Twelve			Total		
	Grade point average											
Self-esteem	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total
	%											
High	36.2	19.7	25.1	27.9	23.8	25.4	31.3	22.7	25.5	31.7	21.9	25.3
Medium	47.3	56.7	53.7	48.1	48.9	48.6	51.6	48	49.7	48.7	52.0	50.8
Low	16.5	23.6	21.3	24.0	27.3	26.0	17.2	28.4	24.7	19.7	26.1	23.8
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total N	(188)	(386)	(574)	(208)	(311)	(519)	(128)	(269)	(392)	(524)	(961)	(1485)
Row Total %	32.8	67.2	100.0	40.1	59.9	100.0	32.7	67.3	100.0	35.2	64.8	100.0
	X^2=18.75 p=.0001			X^2=1.35 p=.51			X^2=6.97 p=.03			X^2=19.62 p=.0001		

significant for self-esteem at the final stage of the high school process.

As indicated in Table 5.6, social class has an interactive effect on the influence of academic performance on self-esteem. In the middle class, academic performance is not significantly related to self-esteem ($X^2 = 4.40$, $p=.11$). Although the relationship falls short of significance, 29.7% of the middle class students with a high academic performance have high self-esteem, compared to only 18.3% of those with below average academic performance. High grade point average is significantly related to self-esteem in the working class, however ($X^2 = 1.097$, $p=.006$). Looking at percentage differences, academic performance does not seriously alter the distribution of the high and medium self-esteem students. The combination of low academic performance and low class status, however, results in a high proportion with low self-esteem. Academic performance significantly affects self-esteem for working class students, but does not have as marked an influence for middle class adolescents.

Summarizing the findings of Table 5.4 to 5.6 regarding the effect of third variables on the relationship between academic performance and self-esteem, sex and grade level do not significantly alter this relationship. Social

Table 5.6. The relationship between academic performance and self-esteem controlling for socio-economic status.

	Middle Class			Working Class		
	Grade point average					
Self-esteem	High	Low	Total	High	Low	Total
	%					
High	29.7	18.3	24.7	34.9	26.7	29.3
Medium	47.8	53.2	50.2	35.1	47.4	49.6
Low	22.5	28.4	25.1	11.0	15.9	21.1
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total N	(138)	(109)	(247)	(109)	(232)	(341)
	X^2=4.40 p=.11			X^2=10.10 p=.006		

class affects the relationship, however. Academic performance has a greater influence on the self-esteem of working class adolescents than middle class adolescents.

To summarize these findings and to examine the comparable relationships with participation in school organizations, Table 5.7 presents partial correlations for both grade point average and school organizations with self-esteem, in separate analyses for each sex, controlling for grade and social class. For both males and females, the zero-order relationship between grade point average and self-esteem persists when first order controls for social class and grade are introduced, and for second order relationships when both social class and grade are controlled simultaneously.

For females, the strength of the relationship between grade point average and self-esteem is reduced slightly when controlling for social class. For boys, however, the reverse is the case: the relationship between grade point average and self-esteem increases slightly as social class level increases. For females the influence of grade point average is enhanced when grade[4] is controlled, reflecting the strong relationship between grades and self-

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[4] As grade is coded 7=1, 9=2, 12=3, a higher correlation reflects a stronger relationship in the lower grades.

Table 5.7. Partial correlations: Academic performance and participation in organizations with adolescent self-esteem, controlling for sex, grade and socio-economic status.

	Adolescent self-esteem with							
	Grade point average				Participation in organizations			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	r	(N)	r	(N)	r	(N)	r	(N)
Zero-order	.15[3]	(750)	.14[3]	(735)	.08[1]	(776)	.12[2]	(750)
First-order								
Socio-economic status	.16[2]	(295)	.13[1]	(291)	.08	(303)	.10	(298)
Grade	.15[2]	(295)	.15[2]	(291)	.08	(303)	.10	(298)
Second-order								
Socio-economic status and grade	.16[2]	(294)	.13[1]	(290)	.08	(302)	.09	(297)

Significance levels: 1=.05; 2=.01; 3=.001 (2 tailed test)

esteem in grade seven noted in the analysis of Table 5.5. For males, however, controlling for grade reduces the significance level of the relationship. The overall influence of academic performance on self-esteem appears to be slightly stronger for males than for females, and increases slightly as socio-economic status and grade level increase. These findings lend support to the explanation that academic achievement is a less important criterion for the self-esteem of female adolescents than for males, as stated in hypothesis 2.3.1.

The relationship between participation in school organizations and self-esteem has not been subjected to crosstabulation analysis. Partial correlation analysis only is employed. In the correlation matrix in Table 5.1, organizational participation is positively related to self-esteem ($.09^3$), sex ($.11^3$), grade level ($.24^3$) and socio-economic status ($.14^3$). Being female, in a lower grade, and of high socio-economic status positively influences organization participation.

Examining the zero-order correlations in Table 5.7, the relationship between number of organizations and self-esteem is stronger for girls ($.12^3$) than for boys ($.08^1$). Both of these relationships, however, are reduced to non-significance in the first and second order partials. The

influence of organizational participation on self-esteem appears to be affected by a tendency for girls to be "joiners" especially in the lower grades and higher socio economic levels. When controlling for these factors, participation in school organizations has less direct influence on self-esteem than grade point average for both males and females. Hypothesis 2.3.2, predicting participation in organizations to influence the self-esteem of girls more than boys, appeared to be valid at the zero-order level. This is found to be a spurious relationship, however, when other factors are introduced.

In summary, academic performance is independently related to self-esteem taking sex, grade and socio-economic status into consideration. The relationship between participation in school organizations and self-esteem is strongly influenced by sex, grade and social class. Although the direction of the casual influences cannot be conclusively inferred from correlational analysis, from the perspective of this thesis it is not unwarranted to conclude that personal competence contributes to positive self-attitudes. The nature of this influence is highly dependent upon the indicator of competence used, and interacts with sex, class and grade level. Academic performance takes on increasing importance for the self-esteem of boys as grade level increases but appears to decrease in importance for

girls as grade level increases.

Summary

In this section, the effect of nine predictor variables on self-esteem has been examined. Social structural factors are not strongly related to self-esteem. Sex and grade are not correlated with self-esteem in and of themselves but expose meaningful patterns when combined. Some erosion of self-esteem occurs through the high school period for girls, particularly between the seventh and ninth grades. There is an increase in the proportions of girls with high and low self-esteem in grade twelve. Mean self-esteem scores increase slightly for boys in grade twelve, with the majority having medium self-esteem. Grade point average, as an indicator of personal competence, is consistently related to self-esteem, independent of social structural and developmental factors, and this relationship is slightly stronger for males. The relationship between participation in organizations and self-esteem becomes spurious when controls for grade and social class are introduced.

SOCIAL APPRAISAL VARIABLES: PARENTAL INTEREST

The specific influence of social structural,

developmental and competence factors was examined in detail in the previous sections. In this section, the influence of parental interest factors is analysed.

In the zero-order relationships of adolescent data (see Table 5.1), adolescent self-esteem is positively related to the perception of parental support (+.27[3]) and normative control (+.15[3]), and inversely related to perceived parental disciplinary behavior (-.10[3]). These relationships are explored in greater depth in this section.

At this point, indicators of parental support and control as reported by each parent are also introduced into the analysis. Separate sections deal with the interrelatedness of normative control and disciplinary behavior, the relative influence of perceived interest factors as compared with parent self-report factors, and the persistence of these relationships when controlling for third variables. Of particular interest is the effect of socio-economic status and religious preference on parental interest factors.

Zero-order relationships: parental support indicators

The positive relationship between perceived parental support and adolescent self-esteem (.27[3]) has already been noted (see Table 5.1). The parallel expectation

for parental support is stated in hypothesis 4.1.2.

Hypothesis 4.1.2 Parental support index scores are positively related to adolescent self-esteem.

Table 5.8 contains zero-order correlations for paternal and maternal support with self-esteem, and also includes indicators of the adolescent perception of support for each parent. Consistent with earlier findings, adolescent self-esteem is positively related to both the perception of maternal support (.29[3]) and the perception of paternal support (.31[3]). Relationships with the parents' self-reports of support, however, are insignificant for maternal support (.07), and, though significant for paternal support (.10[1]), is at a much weaker level of relationship than that between perceived paternal support and adolescent self-esteem. Thus hypothesis 4.1.2 is validated for fathers, but not for mothers.

These findings are of particular importance. Though adolescent self-esteem is related to parental support as perceived by the adolescents, this relationship disappears, in the case of maternal support, or is reduced considerably, in the case of father support, when parental self-reports are used as indicators. On the basis of these findings, inferring a causal relationship between parental support and adolescent self-esteem from the perceptions of

Table 5.8. Correlation matrix of parental interest variables with adolescent self-esteem.+

Variables	15.	14.	13.	12.	11.	10.	9.	8.	7.	6.	5.	4.	3.	2.	1.
1. Sex++	-.06	-.004	-.003	-.01	-.03	.02	-.02	.11[2]	.01	.10[2]	-.03	-.01	.01	-.03	1.00
2. Grade	.07[1]	.00	.03	.01	.03	.002	.04	-.08	.01	.10[2]	.10[2]	-.04	-.02	1.00	
3. Socio-economic status	.03	.01	.06	-.08	-.13[2]	.06	.05	.02	-.11[2]	.13[1]	.24[3]	.28[3]	1.00		
4. Protestant liberalism+++	.05	.07	.05	-.12	-.01	.01	.04	-.01	-.11[1]	.08	.06	1.00			
5. Perception of Father Support	.31[3]	.06	.004	.03	-.07	.12[3]	.19[3]	.23[3]	-.18[3]	.55[3]	1.00				
6. Perception of Mother Support	.29[3]	.13[3]	-.06	.02	.01	.23[3]	.19[3]	.26[3]	-.17[3]	1.00					
7. Perception of Parental Disciplinary behavior	-.11[3]	-.04	.07	.07	.04	-.11[2]	-.02	-.01	1.00						
8. Adolescent Normative control	.12[3]	.02	-.01	-.03	.02	.04	.06	1.00							
9. Father support	.10[1]	.13[3]	.25[3]	-.13[2]	-.06	.20[3]	1.00								
10. Mother support	.07	.27[3]	.001	.01	-.08	1.00									
11. Father Disciplinary Behavior	-.03	.04	.05	.15[3]	1.00										
12. Mother Disciplinary Behavior	-.09[1]	-.07	-.13[2]	1.00											
13. Father Normative Control	.04	.08	1.00												
14. Mother Normative Control	.06	1.00													
15. Adolescent Self-esteem	1.00														

+ Parent-adolescent sample maximum N = 759; minimum 182
++ Level of significance: 1=.05; 2=.01; 3=.001 (2 tailed test)
+++ student report

support by adolescents appears to be a questionable practice. The implications of these findings are dealt with in a later section of this study.

Parental control factors

Turning to the control factors, two hypotheses are tested:

Hypothesis 4.2.3 Parental normative control is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

Hypothesis 4.2.4 Parental disciplinary behavior is positively related to adolescent self-esteem scale scores.

Zero-order correlations for perceived control factors (Table 5.1) found adolescent self-esteem to be inversely related to perceived parental disciplinary behavior (-.11[3]) and positively related to adolescent attitudes regarding normative control (.12[3]). For the parent reports the direction of these relationships is consistent with the above findings, but at weaker or insignificant levels. Self-esteem is inversely related to maternal disciplinary behavior (-.09[1]), but is not significantly related to paternal disciplinary behavior (-.03). Again, predicting a relationship between parental control and adolescent self-esteem on the basis of adolescent perceptions of control is brought into question. Both the

normative control indicators for parents are related to self-esteem in the predicted direction, but below the significance level.

The finding that adolescent self-esteem is positively related to attitudes which are supportive of normative controls, but negatively related to behavioral indicators of control, presents a puzzle regarding the nature and influence of parental control. In an attempt to solve this puzzle, the ideas of Coopersmith (1967) and Gecas (1971) are drawn upon. As discussed in the review of literature, the multidimensional nature of parental control warrants further examination. The notion that self-evaluation requires concrete criteria of evaluation, which are partly provided by explicit rules and standards, is consistent with the finding that self-esteem is positively related to normative control. Coopersmith (1967), however, has suggested that the flexible enforcement of these rules would enhance self-esteem, reflecting the trust a parent places in his or her child, and providing for self-expression and autonomy. The combination of these two factors, a structured normative environment with flexible enforcement, has led to the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 4.2.5 Adolescent self-esteem scale scores are positively related to normative control attitudes when these norms are perceived to be

permissively enforced.

Hypothesis 4.2.6 Adolescent self-esteem scale scores are positively related to parental normative control values when these norms are permissively enforced by parents.

To test these hypotheses, indicators of parental disciplinary behavior were crosstabulated with adolescent self-esteem, controlling for normative control. These results are tabulated in Table 5.9. Separate tabulations are presented for the adolescents, the mothers and the fathers. The expectation that a normative setting, flexibly enforced, would enhance adolescent self-esteem is partially supported for the adolescent indicators, but for neither of the parent tabulations. For adolescents who agree that they should have standards or rules, and who perceive their parents as permissive, 32.2% have high self-esteem scores ($X^2 = 8.4$, 2 d.f., p=.02). The relationship for adolescents who strongly agree with norms and who perceive permissiveness, is also supportive of a high proportion with high self-esteem (35.5%), but the relationship falls slightly below the significance level. The results for the low control group are not significant. Hypothesis 4.2.5 is only partially supported. A medium level of normative structuring with permissive enforcement appears to be significantly related to adolescent self-esteem. Given the fact that the relationship between the perception of permissive

Table 5.9. Crosstabulation of disciplinary behavior with self-esteem, controlling for normative control.

Self-esteem	Adolescent Normative Control Attitudes												
	High Control			Medium Control			Low Control			Total			
	Perception of Parental Disciplinary Behavior												
	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total %	Total (N)
High	24.0	35.5	30.9	17.6	32.2	26.7	22.4	26.3	24.3	21.2	32.3	27.7	(192)
Medium	53.8	51.3	52.3	53.7	48.6	50.5	46.1	47.4	46.7	51.7	49.4	50.4	(349)
Low	22.1	13.2	16.8	28.7	19.2	22.8	31.6	26.3	28.9	27.1	18.3	21.9	(152)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	(104)	(152)	(256)	(108)	(177)	(285)	(76)	(76)	(152)	(288)	(405)	(693)	(693)
	X^2=5.7 2 d.f. P=.06 (NS)			X^2=8.4 d.f.=2 p=.02			X^2=.62 d.f.=2 p=.73 (NS)			X^2=13.7 2 d.f. P=.001			

Table 5.9. Continued.

Self-esteem	Maternal Normative Control Attitudes												
	High Control			Medium Control			Low Control			Total			
	Maternal Disciplinary Behavior												
	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total %	Total (N)
High	26.5	27.3	27.2	23.8	31.9	30.0	14.3	28.6	23.8	25.4	27.9	27.4	(188)
Medium	51.0	51.7	51.6	33.3	46.4	43.3	42.9	50.0	47.6	47.7	51.0	50.4	(345)
Low	22.5	21.0	21.3	42.9	21.7	26.7	42.9	21.4	28.6	26.9	21.1	22.2	(152)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	(102)	(472)	(574)	(21)	(69)	(90)	(7)	(14)	(21)	(130)	(555)	(685)	(685)
	X^2=.13 2 d.f. P=.93 (NS)			X^2=3.67 2 d.f. P=.16 (NS)			X^2=1.2 2 d.f. P=.54 (NS)			X^2=2.1 2 d.f. P=.35 (NS)			

Table 5.9. Continued.

Self-esteem — Paternal Normative Control Attitudes

	High Control			Medium Control			Low Control			Total			
	Paternal Disciplinary Behavior												
	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total	Cont.	Perm.	Total %	Total (N)
High	28.0	28.7	28.5	21.1	29.4	28.1	0.0	23.8	19.2	26.0	28.6	28.0	(168)
Medium	52.3	47.9	49.0	63.2	53.2	54.7	40.0	47.6	46.2	53.4	49.1	50.1	(300)
Low	19.6	23.4	22.5	15.8	17.4	17.2	60.0	28.6	34.6	20.6	22.2	21.9	(131)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total (N)	(107)	(338)	(445)	(19)	(109)	(128)	(5)	(21)	(26)	(131)	(468)	(599)	(599)
	X^2=.84 2 d.f. P=.66 (NS)			X^2=.71 2 d.f. P=.70 (NS)			X^2=2.39 2 d.f. P=.30 (NS)			X^2=.75 2 d.f. P=.68			

disciplinary behavior and self-esteem is significant for the zero-order relationship, the introduction of normative control suppresses this original relationship. This is particularly the case when the adolescent favors an absence of guidelines.

In the case of the maternal and parental normative control factors, the relationships do not yield significant results. Hypothesis 4.2.6 must be rejected. Again it is found that parental reports yield relationships which differ from those which employ adolescent reports.

Parents and adolescents disagree regarding the appropriateness of rules. A comparison of the responses of male and female adolescents, and fathers and mothers is tabulated in Table 5.10. Whereas 84.2% of the mothers strongly agree that rules are needed for their daughters, only 42.4% of the girls share this perspective. Only 30.6% of the boys strongly agree that rules are desirable. These differences could be expected to result in conflict between parents and their adolescent sons and daughters.

Perhaps the most striking conclusion, however, with regard to parental control, is that both having rules and standards, and the perception of relatively permissive parental disciplinary responses on the part of parents are associated with self-esteem. Each of these can be viewed as

Table 5.10. Normative control attitudes of male and female adolescents and parents.

Normative control attitude

Response to question: A Young person ought to have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where to go or where not to go.

Family Position	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree/SD	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
Sons	30.6	43.5	25.8	100.0	(372)
Daughters	42.4	40.0	17.6	100.0	(370)
Fathers-of Daughters	75.9	17.7	6.4	100.0	(311)
Father-of Sons	72.2	24.7	3.1	100.0	(320)
Mothers-of Daughters	84.2	11.6	4.2	100.0	(361)
Mothers-of Sons	82.8	14.4	2.8	100.0	(361)

expressions of parental interest. When a parent shows interest by establishing norms, this can be expected to enhance self-esteem. When a parent shows interest by trusting his or her adolescent to take part in activities outside the home, as typified by the movie situation, and by giving assistance in coping with difficulties rather than punishing or ignoring, as typified by the homework situation, self-esteem appears to be enhanced.

These results indicate the necessity of differentiating normative from behavioral dimensions of control. This differentiation is likely as important as that between firmness and flexibility suggested by Coopersmith (1967) and Gecas (1971). Much of the ambiguity regarding the effect of parental discipline on adolescents can likely be attributed to the confusion of norms and behaviors. Comparing the results of research regarding parental control should clearly differentiate these dimensions. Future research should seek to isolate attitudes and behaviors.

Intervening variables

A number of hypotheses take note of the relationship between parental interest and adolescent self-esteem when controlling for grade, grade point average, sex, social class and religious preference. The intention of

these hypotheses is to examine whether the influence of parental interest on self-esteem can be accounted for by other factors.

Grade and academic performance. Hypothesis 4.2.6 predicts the influence of parental interest on adolescent self-esteem to be independent of grade and academic performance.

> Hypothesis 4.2.6 The relationships in hypotheses 4.1.1 to 4.2.4 are independent of grade level and grade point average.[5]

Partial correlations in Table 5.11 indicate that the correlations between parental interest factors and self-esteem are not substantially altered with the introduction of control variables. These findings tend to validate hypothesis 4.2.6

Sex role. In attempting to account for differential sex role influences on self-esteem, it was suggested in chapter 2 that variations in parental interest might contribute to the distinct patterns of self-esteem formation for boys and girls. It was suggested that girls would be more closely linked to parents and therefore influenced by parental

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[5] These hypotheses deal with parental interest indicators and adolescent self-esteem, for both adolescent and parent data.

Table 5.11. Partial correlations of parental interest variables with adolescent self-esteem, controlling for sex, grade, grade point average and socio-economic status.+

Type of Interest	Parental Support				Normative control			Disciplinary Behavior		
Respondent	Adol.	Adoles.						Adoles.		
Relationship	Percept. Fathers	Percept. Mothers	Fathers	Mothers	Adolescents	Fathers	Mothers	Percept. Parents	Fathers	Mothers
Zero-order++	.31[3]	.29[3]	.10[1]	.07	.12[2]	.04	.06	-.11[2]	-.03	-.09[1]
First-order										
Sex	.31[3]	.30[3]	.09[1]	.07	.12[2]	.04	.06	-.11[1]	-.03	-.08[1]
Grade	.31[3]	.29[3]	.09[1]	.07	.12[2]	.04	.06	-.11[1]	-.04	-.09[1]
Socio-economic status	.31[3]	.29[3]	.09[1]	.07	.12[2]	.04	.06	-.11[1]	-.03	-.09
Grade point average	.30[3]	.28[3]	.09	.06	.11	.04	.05	-.10[1]	-.02	-.08
Fourth-order										
Sex, grade, socio-economic status, grade point average	.30[3]	.29[3]	.08[1]	.06	.13[2]	.04	.05	-.10	-.02	-.08[2]

+ Protestant liberalism has been omitted from the analysis as its inclusion would reduce the N substantially.
++ Level of significance: 1=.05; 2=.01; 3=.001

interest factors more than boys.

Hypothesis 2.4.1 The relationship between parental support and control indicators and self-esteem is greater for girls than for boys.

In Table 5.12 crosstabulations between the perception of paternal support and the perception of maternal support with self-esteem, controlling for the sex of the adolescent, are presented.[6] The relationships between the perception of paternal and maternal support and adolescent self-esteem do not alter significantly in separate tabulations for male and female adolescents. Of the boys, 26.0% perceive their fathers as highly supportive, compared to 24.3% of the girls. Of the girls, 36.9% perceive their mothers to be highly supportive, while only 26.6% of the boys do. These differences in perception, however, do not alter the patterns of self-esteem distribution.

These results indicate that although fathers are perceived to be less supportive differences in the influence of perceived parental support do not appear to influence

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[6] Parental self-report indicators are not significantly related to adolescent self-esteem, therefore only crosstabulations for the adolescent perception of parental support and control are reported. Although the influence of sex on the relationships between parental interest factors and self-esteem are shown to be insignificant in the partial correlations in (Table 5.11), crosstabulations may expose differential patterns of perceived interest.

Table 5.12. The relationship between the perception of parental support with adolescent self-esteem, by sex of adolescent.

	Males					Females				
	Perception of paternal support									
Self-esteem	High	Med	Low	Total		High	Med	Low	Total	
High	38.5	28.7	22.2	28.3	(99)	42.7	41.0	17.4	29.0	(98)
Medium	50.5	60.4	48.7	52.6	(184)	48.8	48.7	47.8	48.2	(163)
Low	11.0	10.9	29.1	19.1	(67)	8.5	10.3	34.8	22.8	(77)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Total N	(91)	(101)	(158)		(350)	(82)	(78)	(178)		(338)
Row %	26.0	28.9	45.1	100.0		24.3	23.1	52.7	100.0	
	X^2=41.5 4 d.f. P=.0000					X^2=22.1 4 d.f. P=.0002				

Table 5.12. Continued.

	Perception of maternal support									
Self-esteem	High	Med	Low	Total		High	Med	Low	Total	
High	40.8	22.1	23.2	27.6	(102)	40.4	27.2	17.7	28.5	(105)
Medium	50.0	61.6	50.8	53.1	(196)	44.9	54.3	44.0	46.9	(173)
Low	9.2	16.3	25.9	19.2	(71)	14.7	18.5	38.3	24.7	(91)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Total N	(98)	(86)	(185)		(369)	(136)	(92)	(141)		(369)
Row %	26.6	23.3	50.1	100.0		36.9	24.9	38.2	100.0	
	X^2=19.8 4 d.f. P=.0005					X^2=31.6 4 d.f. P=.0000				

self-esteem patterns for male and female adolescents. Hypothesis 2.4.1 is not supported when the perception of parental support is used as an indicator of parental interest.

In Table 5.13 the perception of parental disciplinary behavior is crosstabulated with adolescent-self-esteem for each sex. The perception of parental disciplinary behavior is inversely related to self-esteem for both boys and girls. Identical degrees of control are perceived by each sex, with 41% perceiving parents to be controlling, and 58% perceiving permissive disciplinary patterns. The effect of parental control, however, appears to be greater for boys than for girls. For high self-esteem boys the difference between the perception of high and low control is 16.1 percentage points; whereas for girls the difference is only 7.5%. Parental disciplinary behavior, then, appears to be more influencial on self-esteem for boys than for girls. Again, hypothesis 2.4.1 is rejected. In fact, the evidence supports the opposite conclusion, namely that parental control influences the self-esteem of boys more than for girls. Differences in self-esteem levels for male and female adolescents cannot be attributed to different patterns of parental interest. The perception of parental support is equally as influencial in enhancing

Table 5.13. The relationship between the perception of parental disciplinary behavior with adolescent self-esteem, controlling for sex of adolescent.

	Males				Females			
	Perception of parental disciplinary behavior							
Self-esteem	Cont.[1]	Perm.[2]	Total		Cont.	Perm.	Total	
			%	(N)			%	(N)
High	17.9	34.0	27.3	(95)	24.1	31.6	28.5	(100)
Medium	59.3	49.8	53.7	(187)	44.1	48.1	46.7	(164)
Low	22.8	16.3	19.0	(66)	31.7	19.9	24.8	(87)
Total %	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total N	(145)	(203)	(348)	(348)	(145)	(206)	(351)	(351)
Row %	41.3	58.7	100.0		41.7	58.3	100.0	
	X^2=11.3 2 d.f. p=.003				X^2=6.8 2 d.f. p=.03			

[1] Controlling
[2] Permissive

self-esteem for both sons and daughters. The perception of parental control affects the self-esteem of boys more than for girls.[7]

Influence of socio-economic status and religion on parental interest

In the final section of this chapter, the influence of socio-economic status and religion on parental interest is examined. In the review of literature, the influence of social structural factors on self-esteem was attributed more to variations in subcultural norms, values and parenting practices than to the generalization of the prestige of membership groups to individuals. It was hypothesized that both social class and religious groups would be characterized by distinctive patterns of parental interest. Parental interest is viewed as an intervening factor in the influence of social structural patterns on self-esteem.

Socio-economic status. The hypotheses regarding social class are:

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[7] Larson (1969) reported boys to consider parents to influence them more than girls in his examination of the salience hierarchy.

Hypothesis 1.3.1 Socio-economic status is positively related to parental support as reported by adolescents and parents.

Hypothesis 1.3.2 Socio-economic status is inversely related to parental control and perceived parental control indicators.

As demonstrated in the correlation matrix in Table 5.8, socio-economic status is significantly related to adolescent perception of parental support ($.24^3$), and the adolescent perception of maternal support, ($.13^3$). There are no significant relationships between social class and father support (.05) or maternal support (.06), however, though the associations are in the predicted direction. Hypothesis 3.1.1 predicting positive relationships between social class and all the support variables is valid only for adolescent perceptions.

With regard to parental control, socio-economic status is inversely related to disciplinary behavior for the adolescent perception ($-.11^2$) and paternal self-report ($-.13^2$) indicators, but not at a significant level for maternal self-report (-.08) (see Table 5.8). It appears that permissive disciplinary practices are positively related to higher socio-economic levels.

Normative control attitudes are not significantly affected by social class for either the adolescents (.02),

fathers (.06), or mothers (.01). Hypothesis 1.3.2 is supported for disciplinary behavior, but not for normative control.

Regarding the findings of the partial correlations (see Table 5.11), socio-economic status does not alter the relationship between any of the parental interest variables and adolescent self-esteem. Social class tends to be associated with somewhat different parenting practices: the greater the social standing, the higher the support and the permissiveness. These differences, however, do not alter the influence of parental interest on self-esteem.

Religious preference. Hypotheses 1.3.3-1.3.5 predict religious liberalism to positively influence parental support and negatively influence control, and that these relationships are independent of social class.

Hypothesis 1.3.3 Religious Protestant liberalism is positively related to parental support and perceived parental support.

Hypothesis 1.3.4 Religious Protestant liberalism is negatively related to parental control and perceived parental control indicators.

Hypothesis 1.3.5 The relationships in hypotheses 1.3.3 and 1.3.4 are independent of socio-economic status.

In the zero-order correlations (Table 5.14), the

Table 5.14. Partial correlations of Protestant liberalism index with parental interest indicators, controlling for socio-economic status.

Parental interest indicator	Zero-order correlation Protestant liberalism index			Partial correlation controlling for socio-economic status		
	r	(N)	sig.	r	(N)	sig.
Adolescent Perception of Maternal Support	.08	(437)	.10	.04	(365)	.44
Adolescent Perception of Parental Support	.06	(414)	.20	-.01	(365)	.90
Maternal Support	.01	(425)	.86	-.01	(365)	.87
Paternal Support	.05	(380)	.38	.03	(365)	.55
Adolescent Perception of Parental Disciplinary Behavior	-.11	(423)	.02	-.08	(365)	.10
Maternal Disciplinary Behavior	-.12	(418)	.01	-.10	(365)	.05
Paternal Disciplinary Behavior	-.07	(366)	.20	-.03	(365)	.54
Adolescent Normative Control	-.01	(444)	.79	-.02	(368)	.71
Maternal Normative Control	.07	(433)	.14	.07	(368)	.18
Paternal Normative Control	.05	(386)	.31	.03	(368)	.51

religious Protestant liberalism index is related only to adolescent perceptions of parental disciplinary behavior (-.11[1]), and maternal disciplinary behavior (-.12[1]). The more liberal the religious preference, the greater the permissiveness. These relationships become nonsignificent however, when controlling for socio-economic status.

The support indicators are all weakly related to liberalism, but below the acceptable level of significance. Each of these relationships is reduced when social class is controlled for. The relationships between normative control attitudes and liberalism are not as strongly affected by social class.

Hypothesis 1.3.3 predicting a positive relationship between Protestant liberalism and supportive parental behavior is rejected. Though the direction of the relation is as predicted, the relationships fall short of significance. Hypothesis 1.3.4 is supported for the adolescent perception of parental disciplinary behavior and for maternal disciplinary behavior, but not for fathers. Normative control attitudes are not related to religious preference at significant levels.

These relationships, however, tend to be affected by social class thus negating hypothesis 1.3.5. Much of the association between religious preference and parenting

practices appears to be affected by social class, though the extremely low correlations preclude definitive judgements.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the influence of social structural, developmental, competence and parental interest factors on self-esteem, testing specific hypotheses using correlational analysis, crosstabulations introducing control variables, and partial correlations. The findings and implications can be briefly summarized.

Socio-economic status is not related to adolescent self-esteem at a statistically significant level. Parental interest patterns differ by social class with middle class parents being perceived as more supportive and less controlling than working class parents. Parental interest patterns play an intervening role in the relationship between class and self-esteem though the relationship between parental interest and self-esteem persists for both social classes. Social class also positively affects academic performance and organizational participation.

Religious preference is significantly related to self-esteem for middle class adolescents with liberalness of Protestant affiliation positively related to self-esteem. Religious

dissonant context negatively influences self-esteem particularly for middle class students. Religious preference only weakly influences parental practices, with liberal beliefs associated with supportive and permissive patterns. These relationships, however, are influenced by social class.

Sex role is not significantly related to self-esteem though the direction of the developmental patterns over time are as expected. Females slightly exceed males in self-esteem, though in grade 12 they also exceed males in the proportion with low self-esteem. Self-esteem appears to decrease for girls as they advance in grade level, particularly between grades seven and nine. Some support was given for achievement orientation to be a more constant contributing factor to self-esteem for males than for females. Boys also tend to be more influenced by parents than girls.

Grade level tends to be positively associated with self-esteem for male adolescents but not for females, though differences for boys are not significant.

Grade point average is related to self-esteem independent of other factors with the relationship slightly stronger for boys as social class and grade levels increase.

Participation in school activities is more influencial on self-esteem for girls than for boys, but is also strongly associated with higher social class and earlier grade level.

Perception of parental support is the factor most strongly related to self-esteem. Normative control attitudes and the perception of relatively permissive parental discipline patterns are also associated with self-esteem.

Parental interest self-report indicators, however, tend to be unrelated to self-esteem.

The findings of this chapter confirm the expectation that the interpersonal environment of adolescents is more strongly related to self-evaluations than social structural factors. The expectation that self-esteem would increase with age and grade level is not substantiated. Girls show a marked decrease between seven and nine. The factors influencing differential sex role self-concepts have not been identified exactly though academic performance tends to increase in importance for the self-esteem of boys. The perceptual world of the adolescents regarding appraisals by parents is more strongly related to self-esteem than are parental self-reports of interest. Normative and behavioral dimensions of parental control have differential effects on self-esteem. Hypotheses regarding

firmness and flexibility were not validated. Parents and adolescents appear to differ in their reports of normative controls, and the perceptions of parental support and discipline. These matters regarding differential perceptions of parental interest, and their effects on self-esteem, are dealt with in detail in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS: PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE

The previous chapter reported that, as expected, the perception of parental interest by adolescents positively influences their self-esteem. The perception of support by adolescents is more strongly related to self-esteem than are parental self-reports of interest. In this chapter the relationships between these discrepant indicators of parental behaviors are explored.

The chapter is divided into three sections: the congruence of adolescent perceptions of parental interest and parental interest as reported by parents; the influence of different categories of perceptual congruence on self-esteem; and the examination of factors which affect perceptual congruence.

PARENTAL INTEREST AND ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM

The theoretical posture of this study has attempted to maintain the tension between a phenomenological and a behavioristic understanding of human interaction. While acknowledging the symbolic processes at work which affect self-conceptions--for instance that attitudes and behaviors of significant others may be misperceived in order

to maintain consistent self-images--it has also been theorized that individual self-conceptions are derived from the appraisals by these significant others as indicated by their behavior toward a subject. Some continuity exists between the perceptual worlds of individuals, and the actions and attitudes of others directed toward these individuals. Repeating Kinch's expression of this insight: "The individual's perceptions of others' responses are a fairly accurate reflection of the actual responses that others are directing toward him" (Kinch, 1973: 87). Other researchers have predicted adolescents to be poor perceivers of the attitudes of significant others toward them (Elkind, 1967). On the basis of these observations, hypotheses have been constructed to test the relationship between parental reports of interest and the adolescent perceptions of interest.

Hypothesis 5.1.1 Parental support indicators are positively related to perceived support indicators.

Hypothesis 5.1.2 Parental control indicators are positively related to perceived parental control indicators.

Crosstabular analysis is used to examine these hypotheses. In Table 6.1, contingency distributions between parental support and perceived support indicators are tabulated. For both mother and father support, the

Table 6.1. Crosstabulation of parental support with adolescent perception of support.[1]

Adolescent Perception of Support	Maternal Support: High		Medium		Low		Total	
	% (% of total)	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
High	42.7 (15.9)	(111)	29.7 (11.0)	(77)	19.9 (5.1)	(36)	32.0	(224)
Medium	20.4 (7.6)	(53)	25.5 (9.4)	(66)	28.2 (7.3)	(51)	24.3	(170)
Low	36.9 (13.7)	(96)	44.8 (16.6)	(116)	51.9 (13.4)	(94)	43.7	(306)
Total	100.0	(260)	100.0	(259)	100.0	(181)	100.0	(700)
Row %	37.1		37.0		25.9		100.0	

X^2=26.5 4 d.f. p=.000

[1] In these crosstabulations, percentage of total N in each cell is indicated to facilitate estimates of agreement between parents and adolescents.

Table 6.1. Continued.

Adolescent Perception of Support	Paternal Support: High		Medium		Low		Total	
	% (% of total)	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
High	36.5 (5.1)	(31)	30.6 (10.9)	(66)	19.0 (9.6)	(58)	25.6	(155)
Medium	25.9 (3.6)	(22)	23.1 (8.3)	(50)	28.5 (14.4)	(87)	26.2	(159)
Low	37.6 (5.3)	(32)	46.3 (16.5)	(100)	52.5 (26.4)	(160)	48.2	(292)
Total	100.0	(85)	100.0	(216)	100.0	(305)	100.0	(606)
Row %	14.0		35.6		50.3		100.0	

X^2=15.8 4 d.f. p=.0032

perceptions of the adolescents are significantly related to parental self-reports. Although the relationships are highly significant, the strength of the relationships is small.[1] In the relationship between perceived maternal support and maternal support, by adding the percent of the total for the three cells of complete agreement (mother support high-adolescent high; mother medium-adolescent medium; and mother low-adolescent low), only 38.7% of the adolescents and mothers are in full agreement. And in the paternal relationship, 39.8%. Thus less than 40% of the adolescents perceive parental support in precisely the same manner as do the parents themselves.

A similar pattern occurs for parental disciplinary control.[2] In Table 6.2 only 59.7% of the adolescents agree with mother indicators and 55.9% with fathers regarding parents' disciplinary behavior. The relationship between fathers' reports and the adolescents' perception of the disciplinary behavior of fathers falls short of

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[1] In Table 5.8 paternal support and perceived paternal support are correlated +.19³. Maternal support and perceived maternal support are correlated +.23³. Non-parametric measures of agreement could be expected to yield even weaker association (Robinson, 1957).

[2] The questions regarding normative control do not ask for adolescents' perceptions of parental attitudes, therefore comparisons are not feasible. The discrepancies between adolescent and parent attitudes toward controls were reported in the previous chapter.

Table 6.2. Crosstabulation of parental disciplinary behavior with adolescent perceptions.

Adolescent Perception of Parental Discipline[1]	Maternal Disciplinary Behavior: Controlling		Permissive		Total	
	% of total	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Controlling	9.6	(62)	31.8	(206)	41.4	(268)
Permissive	8.5	(55)	50.1	(324)	58.6	(379)
Total	18.1	(117)	81.9	(530)	100.0	(647)

X^2=7.3 1 d.f. p=.007

[1] Separate data for the perception of disciplinary behaviors of mothers and fathers are not provided in the adolescent questionnaires.

Adolescent Perception	Paternal Disciplinary Behavior: Controlling		Permissive		Total	
	% of total	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Controlling	10.0	(56)	31.6	(178)	41.6	(234)
Permissive	12.4	(70)	46.0	(259)	58.4	(329)
Total	22.4	(126)	77.6	(437)	100.0	(563)

X^2=.41 1 d.f. p=.52

significance.

Though hypothesis 5.1.1 regarding support is found to be valid, and 5.1.2 regarding control is partially supported, inaccurate perception of parental behaviors occurs in over 40% of the adolescent-parent dyads. As reported in the last chapter, parental reports of interest are not consistently related to adolescent self-esteem. Although perceived parental behaviors are significantly related to parental self-reports, the strength of the relationship between parental interest and self-esteem is not sufficient to make conclusive inferences concerning parent-adolescent relationships from adolescent perceptions.

PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE AND SELF-ESTEEM

A central hypothesis in this thesis is that self-esteem is systematically related to patterns of perceptual congruence of parental and perceived interest. Agreement regarding parental interest is conceived as having an addative effect on adolescent self-evaluations.

Hypothesis 5.2.1 The perceptual congruence index is related to the adolescent self-esteem scale scores, with the strength of the relationship varying in the following order: positive congruence > positive incongruence > negative incongruence > negative incongruence.

The construction of indicies of perceptual congruence of the adolescent perception of parental support was described in chapter 4. Positive congruence includes those parent-adolescent dyads in which there is agreement that the parent either is high or medium on the paternal or maternal support index. In the case of positive incongruence, the adolescent perceives support, but the parent indicates a lack of support. In effect the adolescent overestimates the parent's degree of support.[3] In the case of negative incongruence, the parent indicates support, but the adolescent perceives a lower level of support, or underestimates parental support as compared with parent self-reports. Negative congruence includes cases in which there is agreement that a lack of parental interest exists. Four items were included in the index: understanding, willingness, interest and knowledge. Cases were scored on the perceptual congruence index according to the modal scores on the four individual items.[4] Separate indicies were prepared for mothers and for fathers.

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[3] It may also be that parents underestimate their support. Findings are reported from the perspective of the adolescents.

[4] If perceptual congruence scores on 2, 3 or 4 items were the same, the index was given that value. In cases which had no clear modal value, scores of the knowledge item were used.

The crosstabulation of adolescent self-esteem by the perceptual congruence of mother support index is reported in Table 6.3. Note that the marginal distributions parallel the crosstabulations of the adolescent perception of maternal support by maternal support: 42.2% of the adolescents agree with their mothers that she is supportive; 17.6% overestimate; 38.4% report lower levels than mothers; and 1.9% agree that there is an extremely low level of maternal support.

The distribution of self-esteem scores varies significantly (X^2=43.38, 6 d.f., p=.000) and systematically with perceptual congruence. In the positive congruent category, 36.2% of the adolescents have high self-esteem. The proportion with high self-esteem systematically decreases as perceptual congruence decreases: positive incongruence, 32.8%; negative incongruence, 19.1%; and negative congruence, 15.4%. This pattern of declining proportions of adolescents with high self-esteem as perceptual congruence declines corresponds exactly to the association predicted in hypothesis 5.2.1. The highest proportions of self-esteem occur when mothers are supportive and when this support is perceived by the adolescent.

In Table 6.4 a similar analysis is made for perceptual congruence of <u>paternal</u> support. Again, the

Table 6.3. Crosstabulation of perceptual congruence of maternal support by adolescent self-esteem.

Self-esteem	Positive Congruence		Positive Incongruence		Negative Incongruence		Negative Congruence		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
High	36.2	(106)	32.8	(40)	19.1	(51)	15.4	(2)	28.6	(199)
Medium	49.8	(146)	50.8	(62)	48.3	(129)	38.5	(5)	49.2	(342)
Low	14.0	(41)	16.4	(20)	32.6	(87)	46.2	(6)	22.2	(154)
Total	100.0	(293)	100.0	(122)	100.0	(267)	100.0	(13)	100.0	(695)
Row %	42.2		17.6		38.4		1.9		100.0	(695)

X^2=43.38 6 d.f. P=0.000

Table 6.4. Crosstabulation of perceptual congruence of paternal support by adolescent self-esteem.

Self-esteem	Positive Congruence		Positive Incongruence		Negative Incongruence		Negative Congruence		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
High	32.9	(75)	33.1	(59)	20.7	(36)	9.1	(2)	28.6	(172)
Medium	52.6	(120)	53.9	(96)	44.3	(77)	40.9	(9)	50.2	(302)
Low	14.5	(33)	12.9	(23)	35.1	(61)	50.0	(11)	21.3	(128)
Total	100.0	(228)	100.0	(178)	100.0	(174)	100.0	(22)	100.0	(602)
Row Total %	37.9		29.6		28.9		3.7		100.0	

I^2=46.75 6 d.f. P=0.000

largest proportion with high self-esteem is in the positive congruence category (37.9%), just slightly less than for maternal support (42.2%). Compared to the perception of maternal support, more adolescents overestimate the support of the fathers (29.6% as compared with 17.6% for mothers), and fewer underestimate (28.9% compared to 38.4% of mothers). A slightly higher proportion are negatively congruent (3.7% to 1.9%).

These distributions indicate that adolescents tend to underestimate the support reported by mothers; and overestimate the support of fathers. The perceptual discrepancy of support by each parent is in opposite directions. This discrepancy is likely due to variations in the degree of support reported by mothers and fathers respectively. Referring back to Table 6.1, a significantly higher proportion of mothers report high support (37.1%) as compared to fathers (14.0%). Fifty percent of the fathers fall into the low support category. Thus, variation in agreement by adolescents is likely due to the divergent patterns of support indicated by mothers and fathers.

The relationship between perceptual congruence and self-esteem also differs from that for mothers. The proportion with high self-esteem is equal for both the positive congruence and positive incongruence categories,

32.9% and 33.1% respectively. Declining proportions with high self-esteem are associated with negative incongruence (20.7%) and negative congruence (9.1%). In the case of father support, therefore, the perception of support by adolescents is as likely as the presence of both father support and perception of support to yield high self-esteem. High self-esteem is maintained independent of the support reported by the fathers.

These results can be interpreted in one of two ways. Either father support is less essential for adolescent self-esteem than is mother support; or the notion that self-evaluations are based upon perceptions, rather than realities, is upheld in its most radical form. The perception of support is most certainly an essential element in maintaining self-esteem. Knowing parental indications of support does not appear to increase the ability to predict self-esteem scores given the strong relationships between adolescent perceptions and self-esteem. The predictions, however, can be considered somewhat more reliable, as they are tempered by the additional information derived from the parents.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PERCEPTUAL CONGRUENCE

In this section, factors influencing perceptual

congruence are examined, including sex of adolescent, grade point average and grade, affect and family power.

Sex-role

On the basis of previous research it is proposed that sex role similarity is conducive to accurate perception, and that girls will tend to be more accurate perceivers. Two hypotheses have been constructed to examine these assumptions.

Hypothesis 6.1.1 Same-sex dyads exceed cross-sex dyads in the degree of perceptual congruence.

Hypothesis 6.1.2 Perceptual congruence in the mother-daughter dyads is greater than congruence in the father-son dyads.

Crosstabulations of perceptual congruence for mothers and fathers by adolescent males and females are tabulated in Table 6.5. Looking first at the congruence of mother support, males and females differ in their perception of maternal support (X^2=8.7; 3 d.f., p=.03). Female adolescents exceed males slightly in their degree of positive congruence (44.2% to 39.8%). Females also overestimate their mother's interest more than boys (20.4% to 14.7%); while boys tend to perceive lower levels of maternal support than females (34.0% to 43.0%). Cell sizes

Table 6.5. Perceptual congruence of parental support by sex of adolescent.

Perceptual Congruence	Mothers						Fathers					
	Females		Males		Total		Females		Males		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	44.2	(156)	39.8	(138)	42.0	(294)	35.5	(105)	40.3	(125)	38.0	(230)
Positive Incongruence	20.4	(72)	14.7	(51)	17.6	(123)	29.7	(88)	29.4	(91)	29.5	(179)
Negative Incongruence	34.0	(120)	43.0	(150)	38.6	(270)	31.4	(93)	26.5	(82)	28.9	(175)
Negative Congruence	1.4	(5)	2.3	(8)	1.9	(13)	3.4	(10)	3.9	(12)	3.6	(22)
Totals	100.0	(353)	100.0	(347)	100.0	(700)	100.0	(296)	100.0	(310)	100.0	(606)
Row %	50.4		49.6		100.0		48.8		51.2		100.0	
	X^2=8.7 3 d.f. p=.03						X^2=2.34 3 d.f. p=.50					

and percents are very small for negative congruence, but males tend to be more accurate in this category. Summing the congruence categories, 45.6% of the females agree with mother reports, while 41.1% of the males perceive accurately. These figures give some support for the notion that female adolescents are more accurate perceivers of maternal support than males.

With regard to the perception of father support, however, there is no difference between males and females in the degree of accuracy (X^2=2.34; 3 d.f., p=.50). For female adolescents 35.5% accurately perceive fathers' indicators of support, compared to 40.3% of males. Males tend to be more accurate perceivers of their fathers. In the other categories of congruence, equal percentages (29.4% of males and 29.7% of females) overestimate father interest, while slightly more girls underestimate (31.4% to 26.5%). Summing the congruence categories, 38.9% of the girls, compared to 44.2% of the boys agree with father estimates of support. Girls are more accurate perceivers of mother support than are boys; but boys appear to perceive fathers more accurately than girls do.

With regard to hypothesis 6.1.1 predicting more accurate perception in same-sex dyads, 45.6% of the mother-daughter dyads are in agreement, and 44.2% of the father-son

dyads. In the cross-sex dyads, 41.1% of the mother-son dyads are congruent, and 38.9% of the father-daughter dyads. Same-sex dyads appear to be slightly more in agreement than cross-sex dyads.

Similarly, the mother-daughter dyads are only slightly more congruent than father-son dyads, as dealt with in hypothesis 6.1.2. Female adolescents are better perceivers of their mothers than are boys; but boys tend to exceed girls slightly in the accurate perception of fathers. Simply examining percentage differences tends to led support to hypotheses 6.1.1 and 6.1.2. The range of percentage differences, however, is not significant using the standard error of proportions as an estimate of the range of error in a normally distributed population (cf. Anderson and Zelditch 1968: 205). The two hypotheses, therefore, must be rejected, since the data provide insufficient evidence to conclude that sex role similarity positively affects perceptual congruence, or that females are more accurate perceivers than males.

Inference Ability

Grade level and grade point average are used as indicators of the ability to make interpersonal inferences.

Hypothesis 6.2.1 As the grade of adolescents increases, perceptual congruence

increases.

Hypothesis 6.2.2 As grade point average increases, perceptual congruence increases.

The crosstabulation of perceptual congruence by grade level is tabulated in Table 6.6. There are no significant differences in either the perception of maternal or paternal support among the three grades, nor does a scanning of the percentage differences indicate notable differences. Hypothesis 6.2.1 is rejected.

In Table 6.7 perceptual congruence is crosstabulated with grade point average. For the perception of maternal support, no differences are noted for academic performance. A significant difference exists for fathers, however (X^2=15.88, 3 d.f., p=.0012). Of the adolescents with above average grades 45.5% are positive congruent, with only 32.2% of those with lower grades. Those with below average grades also tend to underestimate their fathers' support (33.4%) as compared with the above average group (22.4%). Hypothesis 6.2.2 is substantiated for the perception of paternal support, but not for the perception of mother support.

Crosstabulations of congruence by grade point average, controlling for grade level (table not shown) does not alter these results. In Table 6.8 The relationship

Table 6.6. Perceptual congruence by grade level.

Congruence	Perception of Maternal Support								Perception of Paternal Support							
	Grade 7		Grade 9		Grade 12		Total		Grade 7		Grade 9		Grade 12		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	43.9	(105)	37.3	(85)	44.6	(104)	42.0	(294)	35.7	(76)	41.0	(80)	37.4	(74)	38.0	(230)
Positive Incongruence	19.2	(46)	17.1	(39)	16.3	(38)	17.6	(123)	35.7	(76)	24.6	(48)	27.8	(55)	29.5	(179)
Negative Incongruence	35.1	(84)	43.0	(98)	37.8	(88)	38.6	(270)	26.3	(56)	30.3	(59)	30.3	(60)	28.9	(175)
Negative Congruence	1.7	(4)	2.6	(6)	1.3	(3)	1.9	(13)	2.3	(5)	4.1	(8)	4.5	(9)	3.6	(22)
Total	100.0	(239)	100.0	(228)	100.0	(233)	100.0	(700)	100.0	(213)	100.0	(195)	100.0	(198)	100.0	(606)
Row Total	34.1		32.6		33.3		100.0		35.1		32.2		32.7		100.0	
	X^2=5.53 6 d.f. P=.47								X^2=7.62 6 d.f. P=.27							

Table 6.7. Perceptual congruence by grade point average.

Perceptual Congruence	Perception of Maternal Support						Perception of Paternal Support					
	High GPA		Low GPA		Total		High GPA		Low GPA		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	46.1	(125)	39.6	(162)	42.2	(287)	45.5	(116)	32.5	(108)	38.2	(224)
Positive Incongruence	15.5	(42)	18.8	(77)	17.5	(119)	30.2	(77)	29.2	(97)	29.6	(174)
Negative Congruence	36.9	(100)	39.4	(161)	38.4	(261)	22.4	(57)	33.4	(111)	28.6	(168)
Negative Incongruence	1.5	(4)	2.2	(9)	1.9	(13)	2.0	(5)	4.8	(16)	3.6	(21)
Total	100.0	(271)	100.0	(409)	100.0	(680)	100.0	(255)	100.0	(332)	100.0	(587)
Row Total %	39.9		60.1		100.0		43.4		56.6		100.0	
	X^2=3.37 3 d.f. P=.34						X^2=15.88 3 d.f. P=.0012					

Table 6.8. Perceptual congruence by grade point average controlling for sex of adolescent.

Perception of Maternal Support

	Females						Males					
	High GPA		Low GPA		Total		High GPA		Low GPA		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	51.3	(77)	40.3	(77)	45.2	(154)	39.7	(48)	39.0	(85)	39.2	(133)
Positive Incongruence	16.0	(24)	23.0	(44)	19.9	(68)	14.9	(18)	15.1	(33)	15.0	(51)
Negative Incongruence	31.3	(47)	35.1	(67)	33.4	(114)	43.8	(53)	43.1	(94)	43.4	(147)
Negative Congruence	1.3	(2)	1.6	(3)	1.5	(5)	1.7	(2)	2.8	(6)	2.4	(8)
Total	100.0	(150)	100.0	(191)	100.0	(341)	100.0	(121)	100.0	(218)	100.0	(339)
Total	44.0		56.0		100.0		35.7		64.3		100.0	
	X^2=4.72 3 d.f. P=.19						X^2=.42 3 d.f. P=.93					

Table 6.8. Continued.

Perception of Paternal Support

	Females						Males					
	High GPA		Low GPA		Total		High GPA		Low GPA		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	40.7	(59)	31.0	(44)	35.9	(103)	51.8	(57)	33.7	(64)	40.3	(121)
Positive Incongruence	29.7	(43)	30.3	(43)	30.0	(86)	30.9	(34)	28.4	(54)	29.3	(88)
Negative Incongruence	26.9	(39)	35.2	(50)	31.0	(89)	16.4	(18)	32.1	(61)	26.3	(79)
Negative Congruence	2.8	(4)	3.5	(5)	3.1	(9)	.9	(1)	5.8	(11)	4.0	(12)
Total	100.0	(145)	100.0	(142)	100.0	(287)	100.0	(110)	100.0	(190)	100.0	(300)
Total Row	50.5		49.5		100.0		36.7		63.3		100.0	
	X^2=3.62 3 d.f. P=.30						X^2=16.53 3 d.f. P=.0009					

between grade point average and perceptual congruence is controlled for sex of adolescent. The relationship between grade point average and perception of maternal support does not change when sex of adolescent is introduced. For fathers, boys with high academic performance are found to perceive more accurately, but there is no difference for girls. Thus hypothesis 6.2.2 is valid only for the perception of paternal interest by sons.

Affect

The nature of the relationship between the perceived and the perceiver is an important factor in interpersonal perception. Positive affect is expected to positively influence perceptual congruence.

Hypothesis 6.3.1 As the perception of consistent affect increases, perceptual congruence increases.

This hypothesis is tested by crosstabulating perceptual congruence with the adolescent reports of being liked by parents, as tabulated in Table 6.9. The results indicate the perception of affect by adolescents to have a

Table 6.9. Perceptual congruence by consistent affect between parent and adolescent.

Perceptual Congruence	Perception of Maternal Support								Perception of Paternal Support							
	High Affect		Medium		Low		Total		High Affect		Medium		Low		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	57.7	(210)	29.6	(66)	15.9	(18)	42.0	(294)	46.3	(95)	35.4	(92)	31.1	(41)	38.2	(228)
Positive Incongruence	23.9	(87)	12.6	(28)	7.1	(8)	17.6	(123)	19.0	(39)	35.4	(92)	34.8	(46)	29.6	(177)
Negative Incongruence	18.1	(66)	55.6	(124)	11.4	(80)	38.6	(270)	34.1	(70)	26.5	(69)	25.0	(33)	28.8	(172)
Negative Congruence	.3	(1)	2.2	(5)	6.2	(7)	1.9	(13)	.5	(1)	2.7	(7)	9.1	(12)	3.4	(20)
Total	100.0	(364)	100.0	(223)	100.0	(113)	100.0	(700)	100.0	(205)	100.0	(260)	100.0	(132)	100.0	(597)
Row Total	52.0		31.9		16.1		100.0		34.3		43.6		22.1		100.0	
	X^2=169.52 6 d.f. P=0.0								X^2=39.25 6 d.f. P=0.000							

very strong positive influence on perceptual congruence.[5] For mother support, when perceived affect is high, 57.7% of the adolescents are positively congruent, reducing to 15.9% for low affect. A similar relationship exists for the perception of paternal support.

Family Power

The research of Thomas, Franks and Calonico (1972) has been used to predict that those least powerful in relationships tend to be more accurate perceivers; and that the most powerful are perceived more accurately.

Hypothesis 6.4.1 As the power of the perceiver increases, perceptual congruence decreases; as the power of the perceived increases, perceptual congruence increases.

To test this hypothesis, the power of parents is measured by an indicator of decision-making which differentiates family authoritarian structures as father dominated, mother dominated, or equalitarian. Adolescent power simply assumes girls to be less powerful than boys. Thus it can be expected that girls are more accurate

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[5] Separate crosstabulations were also made for parental reports of affect, with consistently valid findings. Parental affect and parental support can be expected to be strongly related to each other.

perceivers of the parent considered to have the most decision making power than either boys, or when perceiving the least powerful parent. This relationship is tested through crosstabulation of perceptual congruence by family power by sex of adolescent in Table 6.10.

Examining the marginals, over 70% of the female adolescents and over 60% of the males perceive the authority structure of their families to be equalitarian. About 20% of the female adolescents view their fathers as dominant compared with 35% of male adolescents. Mothers are perceived to be dominant in less than 5% of the cases.

With regard to patterns of perceptual congruence, positive congruence appears to be most accurate when the authority structure is viewed as being equalitarian. In only one table is there a significant difference in perceptual patterns: in the female adolescent perception of maternal support. In this situation, the support of mothers is highly underestimated -- that is dominance by mothers apparently contributes to their support being underestimated. Mothers consider themselves supportive, but appear authoritarian and unsupportive to their daughters. In this table, father dominance or equalitarian family structure appears to enhance perceptual congruence. Of the female adolescents 48.3% correctly perceive mothers to be supportive when

Table 6.10. Perceptual congruence by family power by sex of adolescent.

Perceptual Congruence	Perception of Maternal Support: Female Adolescents — Father Dominant		Equalitarian		Mother Dominant		Total		Male Adolescents — Father Dominant		Equalitarian		Mother Dominant		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	48.3	(28)	47.7	(106)	16.7	(2)	46.6	(136)	33.0	(34)	44.1	(83)	62.5	(5)	40.8	(122)
Positive Incongruence	13.8	(8)	22.5	(50)	16.7	(2)	20.5	(60)	14.6	(15)	17.0	(32)			15.7	(47)
Negative Incongruence	36.2	(21)	28.8	(64)	58.3	(7)	31.5	(92)	47.6	(49)	37.8	(71)	37.5	(3)	41.1	(123)
Negative Congruence	1.7	(1)	.9	(2)	8.3	(1)	1.4	(4)	4.9	(5)	1.1	(2)			2.3	(7)
Row Totals	19.9	(58)	76.0	(222)	4.1	(12)	100.0	(292)	34.4	(103)	62.9	(188)	2.7	(8)	100.0	(299)
	X^2=12.51 6 d.f. P=.05								X^2=10.38 6 d.f. P=.11							

Table 6.10. Continued.

Perception of Paternal Support

Perceptual Congruence	Female Adolescents: Father Dominant		Equalitarian		Mother Dominant		Total		Male Adolescents: Father Dominant		Equaltiarian		Mother Dominant		Total	
	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)
Positive Congruence	31.1	(19)	37.7	(75)	27.3	(3)	35.8	(97)	33.3	(33)	46.4	(83)	60.0	(3)	42.0	(119)
Positive Incongruence	32.8	(20)	28.6	(57)	27.3	(3)	29.5	(80)	32.3	(32)	26.8	(48)			28.3	(80)
Negative Incongruence	32.8	(20)	31.2	(62)	36.4	(4)	31.7	(86)	30.5	(30)	22.9	(41)	40.0	(2)	25.8	(73)
Negative Congruence	3.3	(2)	2.5	(5)	9.1	(1)	3.0	(8)	4.0	(4)	3.9	(7)			3.9	(11)
Total	100.0	(61)	100.0	(199)	100.0	(11)	100.0	(271)	100.0	(99)	100.0	(179)	100.0	(5)	100.0	(283)
Row Total	22.5		73.4		4.1		100.0		35.0		63.3		1.8		100.0	
	X^2=2.75 6 d.f. P=.83								X^2=7.04 6 d.f. P=.32							

fathers are dominant; and 47.7% when the authority structure is seen as equalitarian.

The hypothesis predicted perceptual accuracy when the perceived is dominant. This occurs in the case of the perception of mother support by sons. Of the mothers who are dominant, 62.5% are accurately perceived as supportive by their sons, though the cell size in this case is below 10. The perception of father support by male adolescents, however, is not more accurate when fathers are dominant. Female adolescents do not perceive dominant fathers more accurately than in other categories. Hypothesis 6.4.1 receives inadequate support to be considered valid on the basis of these results.

SUMMARY

The findings of this chapter can be briefly summarized:

1. The perception of parental interest is related to parent reports of interest in the case of mother and father support and mother disciplinary behavior. The perception of paternal disciplinary behavior is not related to fathers' reports of discipline.

2. In spite of this relationship between parent reports of interest and perceived interest by adolescents, a considerable amount of inaccurate perception takes place. Accurate perception of parental support occurs in 42.2% of the cases for mothers and 38.9% for fathers.

3. Discrepancies between parent and adolescent reports tend to occur systematically. The support of mothers is consistently underestimated by both sons and daughters, and the support of fathers is consistently overestimated by adolescents when compared with fathers' own responses. Mothers report significantly higher support than fathers.

4. Patterns of perceptual congruence are systematically related to self-esteem. This is particularly the case for mother support in which positive congruence by adolescents results in high proportions of high self-esteem than the other conditions of congruence. This pattern is not as consistent for the perception of father support, in which those adolescents who perceive support continue to have a high level of self-esteem despite some lack of reported support by fathers. It is quite evident that the perceptual world of the adolescent has a strong influence on self-conceptions.

5. The attempts to identify factors which influence accurate perception have not been overwhelmingly successful.

   a. Females tend to perceive mother support more accurately than boys, and also tend to overestimate mother support more than boys. Ther are no significant differences between male and female adolescents in their perception of father support, (though males tend to be more accurate, and females tend to underestimate). Although same-sex dyads are slightly more accurate than cross-sex dyads, the percentage differences are below acceptable confidence levels.

   b. Perceptual congruence does not improve as grade level increases. High grades for male adolescents tend to improve their perception of paternal support, but there are no significant differences in the other relationships.

   c. Perceptual congruence is very strongly related to consistent affect between parent and adolescent, and this is also the case when parents report affect.

   d. Decision-making power does not significantly

affect the perceptual congruence of adolescents. There is some evidence that authoritarian mothers tend to be perceived as less supportive.

This chapter has found that adolescent perceptions of support are related to the responses of parents. Adolescents are not living in "imaginary worlds," so engrossed in their own personal identity struggles that they misrepresent and distort parental behaviors toward them. However, a considerable amount of misperception does occur. The support of mothers is underestimated by adolescents and the support of fathers overestimated, as compared with the parents' own reports of interest. Affective relationships increase perceptual accuracy, but there are no differences for grade level, academic performance or authority patterns between parents.

In the final chapter the results of the whole study are briefly summarized, and a number of general conclusions made. Some critical comments which indicate some of the limitations of this study are also made, and suggested areas for further investigation are identified.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

This study has two basic objectives: 1. to assess the influence of parental appraisals on adolescent self-esteem in the context of social and personal factors; and 2. to explore the role of perceptual factors in measuring the relationship between parental interest and adolescent self-appraisals. In this chapter the findings concerning these goals are summarized and evaluated.

SUMMARY

It is quite evident from this study that the perception of parental appraisals is positively related to adolescent self-evaluations independent of social structural, developmental and competence factors. Parental interest patterns are influenced by social class, and to a much lesser extent by religious preference. The effect of parental interest on self-esteem, however, persists for each of the socio-economic and religious groupings examined. Adolescents belonging to religious minority groups appear to suffer from status dissonance which negatively affects self-conceptions.

Adolescent self-evaluations are not significantly

different for males and females in the total sample nor in separate grades. The self-esteem of girls appears to decrease through the junior and high school grades, though the reasons for sex role differences in self-concept development remain unclear. Positive evaluations are related to academic performance, especially for boys and in the working class, and in grades seven and twelve, and to organizational participation at school, especially for girls and for students in the earlier grades.

Although regression methods were not used to identify the unique contribution of each predictor factor to self-esteem, on the basis of zero-order and partial correlations, perceived parental support is most strongly related to self-esteem among the antecedent factors examined. Adolescents with high self-esteem also appear to favor having rules, and perceive parents to be relatively permissive in disciplinary responses.

The examination of perceptual factors has made use of comparative data from parents and adolescents. Although responses to identical indicators of parental interest by adolescents and parents are significantly related to one another, parent self-reports of interest are generally unrelated to adolescent self evaluations.

A closer examination of the relationship between

parental interest factors and the perceptions of adolescents found only about 50% agreement. Self-esteem is systematically related to perceptual congruence of the parental and perceived support indicators, for mothers. The perception of father support is related to adolescent self-esteem independent of father reports. In the case of both parents, the perception of low support, no matter what the level of support reported by the parent, is related to lower self-esteem.

A number of factors which influence perceptual distortion in parent-adolescent relationships have been identified. Mothers report higher levels of support than fathers, and than is perceived by adolescents. Fathers are perceived by their children as more supportive than they themselves report. Female adolescents tend to perceive more support by parents than do male adolescents.

With regard to normative controls, parents are significantly more in favor of rules and standards for youth than are adolescents. Girls are more in favor of rules than are boys. Agreement that rules are necessary declines as grade level increases.

Adolescents perceive parents to be relatively permissive in their disciplinary behavior. Both mothers and fathers, however, report themselves to be less controlling

of their children than the children themselves perceive.

Neither male nor female adolescents appear to be more accurate perceivers of their parents at statistically acceptable levels. Grade level of adolescents has no significant effect on perceptual accuracy. Academic performance is positively related to boys' ability to predict father support. Positive affect between parents and adolescents enhances congruity. Accurate perception of parental support appears to be more related to equalitarian authority structure between the parents than when one parent is dominant. Daughters are somewhat more accurate perceivers of mother support than they are of fathers, or than sons are, though family power structure generally is not significantly related to perceptual patterns.

EVALUATION

This study has confirmed the association between adolescent self-evaluations and the interest of parents -- as perceived by adolescents. Distinguishing between three categories of interest -- support, normative control and disciplinary behavior -- has assisted in clarifying the nature and distinctive influence of different types of parenting. The distinction between normative and behavioral dimensions of control has exposed the discrepant patterns of

association of these factors with adolescent self-esteem.

The finding that girls appear to develop less positive self-evaluations through the junior and senior high school years adds another piece to the puzzle regarding distinctive sex role patterns of development. The finding that self-concepts are not directly related to social structural groupings, such as religion and social class, but appear to work their influence through intervening factors, confirms the need to identify the specific interpersonal interactions which link the social structure with personality attributes.

Perhaps the major finding of this study is that parental self-reports of parenting behavior, although related to perceptions of parental behaviors by adolescents, are minimally related to adolescent self-appraisals. The perception of parental interest by adolescents appears to be an important link in the influence of parental support and control on adolescent self-evaluations. This finding supports the formative influence of perceptions of social interactions on personal self-conceptions, and exposes the dangers of using self-report survey data for researching family system interaction. Family researchers must continue to invent more sensitive instruments for assessing family behavior. One approach is to rely more heavily upon

observable behavior which can be explicitly defined and measured. Another approach is to be more sensitive to the intrapersonal realities of family member communication. To act as if perceptions of reality represent some kind of common definition is to ignore the complex nature of family phenomena.

The fact that this study has identified some of the directions in which perceptual agreement and reports of family behavior are likely to be distorted may be of some help in assessing the reliability of survey methods of family research.

Along with these substantive findings and insights, this study has many readily recognizable faults and limitations. Some of these have already been mentioned: the unreliability of self-reports, the sampling procedures which limit the extent to which any conclusions can be generalized, the use of cross-sectional data to make longitudinal developmental assessments, and the possible biases caused by a relatively poor response rate among parents.

A number of other limitations have become evident as the study was executed. First, the linkages between a number of indicators and theoretical concepts have proven to be extremely weak. Academic performance, for instance, is a

very poor indicator of achievement criteria for male self-evaluation. Further studies necessitate the use of quite specific indicators to expose the criteria of evaluations used for self-appraisal. The present study has not been able to identify these factors with sufficient clarity. Although a valid instrument to measure the dependent variable was used, the validity of the independent measures remains in doubt.

Second, the study has committed one of the fallacies stressed so forcefully by Ruth Wylie (1961), namely the use of correlational methods to infer causal relationships. In the case of many key relationships, although some association may have been shown, the correlational method lacks the precision required to infer causal relationships. Does academic performance "cause" self-esteem? Or does high self-esteem "cause" productive academic achievement? Does parental interest "cause" high self-esteem? Or do adolescents with high self-esteem simply perceive parents to be supportive? The methodology of this study does not allow these questions to be answered.

Third, the statistical measures of association have made a number of assumptions in the use of the correlation coefficient. In spite of the pragmatic arguments advanced to justify this usage, non-parametric measures

which take more seriously exact matching of ordinality are appropriate to many of the relationships examined. The low level of correlation for many of these relationships makes one wonder whether the usage of other measures of association might have given even less significant results. On the other hand, the avoidance of the use of regression analysis (which would have involved even more assumptions about the nature of the data) has prevented giving a clear and uniform picture of the multivariate relationships among the predictor variables. As the study reached its final stages, it became apparent that path analysis would have been a very effective means of assessing the intervening relationships between social structural factors, parental behaviors and adolescent self-concepts (cf. Gordon, 1972).

Fourth, the study has not adequately explored the nature of the conditions under which interpersonal influence is likely to occur. The finding that a relationship of affect enhances influence has only touched the surface of this problem. The finding that family structure has some effect on perception also serves only to tease and to tempt the researcher to dig for the identification of more precise conditions of parent-adolescent influence.

Fifth, this study has made some logical jumps to link parental interest with appraisal of significant others

in the symbolic interactionist framework. Parental support and control denote much more than interest or appraisal. Specific parenting practices can be viewed as reinforcing particular self-conceptions. This study does not negate the symbolic interaction approach -- in fact it has exposed again the influence of symbolic and phenomenological perceptions on self-attitudes -- but it has not demonstrated the exclusive utility of interactionist presuppositions either. The findings can be located within the framework of other approaches.

As a final critique, the study has chosen to ignore the influence of significant others other than parents. While it argued that parental behaviors continue to play a role in the development of self-conceptions for adolescents, parental interest is able to predict only a very small portion of the variation in adolescent self-evaluations. Continuing research including the influence of other associations appears essential to gain a complete picture of the etiology of self-evaluations by adolescents.

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APPENDIX

Survey Questionnaires

FORM A - STUDENT

IBM NUMBER

OREGON STUDENT SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

(Full Name of Your School)

Your Sex: ( ) Male

( ) Female

(Your Grade)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the life of young people. We are interested in finding out something about your parents, your best friends, your teachers, and your school. We believe that you will enjoy answering the questions.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question frankly, honestly, and to the best of your ability. Your parents, best friends, or teachers will never see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how students in general answer the questions rather than in how any particular student answers them.

INSTRUCTIONS

A. A number of items use the terms "MOTHER" and "FATHER." If you are not currently living with your natural mother or father, the terms should be taken to mean your "STEPMOTHER, STEP-FATHER, MALE GUARDIAN, or FEMALE GUARDIAN, or FOSTER MOTHER or FATHER" - whoever you are living with. The term "PARENTS" refers to your current parents or "PARENT" if you were only living with one of your parents during the past year. NOTE: If you have not lived with both of your parents during the past year (since October, 1967) but did live with both of your parents before this time, then answer all questions just as if your parents were still living together. If, however, you have lived with only one of your parents for more than a year then check (✓) the box that applies in each question and go on to the next question.

B. Read each item carefully. Answer it to the best of your knowledge. Please check (✓) or circle only one answer. However, do not spend too much time on any one question. If there is not an appropriate answer available then write in your answer or write in "I don't know."

C. Be sure to follow the directions given for answering each question.

D. Do not skip any questions unless you are instructed to do so.

E. If you wish to make comments, please feel free to do so, and write them in the margin by the questions or at the end of the questionnaire.

F. The small numbers that frequently appear in the questionnaire are for IBM processing equipment. These numbers aid in tabulating your responses at the research office.

H. NOTE: YOU HAVE ALSO RECEIVED A TAKE-HOME PACKET. PLEASE TAKE HOME WITH YOU AND SEE THAT IT IS HANDED EITHER TO YOUR MOTHER OR FATHER AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THIS PACKET WITH THEIR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE. PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE WITH YOUR PARENTS UNTIL THEY HAVE FILLED OUT THEIRS!

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION -

CARD ONE

12. HOW OLD ARE YOU TODAY?

1. ( ) 10-11 years
2. ( ) 12 years
3. ( ) 13 years
4. ( ) 14 years
5. ( ) 15 years
6. ( ) 16 years
7. ( ) 17 years
8. ( ) 18 years
9. ( ) 19+ years

13. WHAT IS YOUR RACIAL BACKGROUND?

1. ( ) White
2. ( ) Negro
3. ( ) Oriental
4. ( ) American Indian
5. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

14. WHAT IS YOUR SEX?

1. ( ) Male
2. ( ) Female

15. WHAT GRADE ARE YOU IN?

1. ( ) 7th grade
2. ( ) 8th grade
3. ( ) 9th grade
4. ( ) 10th grade
5. ( ) 11th grade
6. ( ) 12th grade

16. WHAT KIND OF PROGRAM ARE YOU TAKING IN SCHOOL? NOTE: If you are not in one of these programs now, which one will you be in?

1. ( ) College Prep - (a course of study that prepares you for college)
2. ( ) General - (a course of study that does not prepare you for college)
9. ( ) I don't know

17. HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS ONLY! Which areas of study are you emphasizing. If more than one, check the area in which you take the most courses.

1. ( ) Business education
2. ( ) English
3. ( ) Fine Arts
4. ( ) Foreign language
5. ( ) Humanities
6. ( ) Industrial Arts
7. ( ) Mathematics
8. ( ) Physical Education
9. ( ) Science

18. ARE YOUR MOTHER AND FATHER NOW LIVING?

1. ( ) Both are living
2. ( ) Only my father is living
3. ( ) Only my mother is living
4. ( ) Neither parent is living

19. ARE YOUR PARENTS DIVORCED OR SEPARATED?

1. ( ) No, they are not divorced or separated
2. ( ) Yes, they are divorced
3. ( ) Yes, they are separated

20. WITH WHOM DO YOU LIVE?

1. ( ) With both my mother and father
2. ( ) With only my mother
3. ( ) With only my father
4. ( ) With my mother and stepfather
5. ( ) With my father and stepmother
6. ( ) With foster parents
7. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

21- 26. WRITE THE FIRST NAMES OF EACH ONE OF YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. Indicate how old they are and whether they are a brother (put B) or sister (put S). If you have no brothers or sisters place a checkmark in the category below: "No brothers," and "No sisters."

Example:	Sex	Age
John	B	12

( ) No brothers ( ) No sisters

27. HOW OFTEN DO YOU GO TO THE MOVIES?

1. ( ) never - SKIP TO QUESTION 29
2. ( ) several times a year
3. ( ) about once a month
4. ( ) two or three times a month
5. ( ) about once a week
6. ( ) more than once a week

} GO ON TO QUESTION 28

28. WHEN YOU GO TO THE MOVIES, WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN GO WITH?

1. ( ) your parents
2. ( ) your best friends
3. ( ) your brothers or sisters

29. ABOUT HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND WATCHING TV ON WEEKDAYS?

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
5. ( ) about 2 hours a day
6. ( ) 3 or more hours a day

The following four items are about your plans for a job and for an education. There are two types of questions. One type is called "REALLY LIKE TO" and the other type is called "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO." There is a very important difference between these questions.

A "REALLY LIKE TO" question on jobs asks you to choose what you most want to do. For example, you may really want to be an engineer or a lawyer. A "ACTUALLY EXPECT TO" question on jobs asks what you think you will actually do. For example, because you know that you cannot afford a college education you actually expect to be a mechanic. Please keep this difference in mind when you answer the following questions.

30. SUPPOSING YOU HAD THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., HOW FAR WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trace or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanic school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters, Ph. D)
9. ( ) I don't know

31. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, ETC., HOW FAR DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO GO IN SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example beauty or auto mechanic school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters, Ph. D)
9. ( ) I don't know

32. SUPPOSING YOU COULD HAVE THE NECESSARY ABILITIES, EDUCATION, GRADES, MONEY, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK WOULD YOU REALLY LIKE TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

_____

(Specific name or title of job you would really like to have. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

33. CONSIDERING YOUR ABILITIES, GRADES, FINANCIAL RESOURCES, CHANCES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL, COLLEGE, ETC., WHAT KIND OF WORK DO YOU ACTUALLY EXPECT TO DO AFTER YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION?

_____

(Specific name or title of job you actually expect to get. If you really don't know, put DK on the above line.)

34. WHAT ARE YOUR PLANS REGARDING MARRIAGE?

1. ( ) I am married now
2. ( ) I plan to get married soon after I get out of high school
3. ( ) I plan to get married while in the service or while I am in college
4. ( ) I plan to finish all my schooling and/or service obligations before I marry
5. ( ) I do not plan to marry at all
6. ( ) I am undecided

Young people usually have some specific ideas about the school they attend. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
35. School is dull and boring	SA	A	D	SD
36. School is a waste of time for the type of work I will be doing	SA	A	D	SD
37. My teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	SA	A	D	SD
38. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everybody has an equal opportunity to get good grades. The teachers do not have favorites	SA	A	D	SD
39. I like school very much	SA	A	D	SD

The following statements are about your relationships with your teachers. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of most of your teachers. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
40. My teachers understand my problems	SA	A	D	SD
41. My teachers are willing to talk with me when I have a question	SA	A	D	SD
42. My teachers are interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
43. My teachers know their subjects well	SA	A	D	SD
44. My teachers really help me understand the lessons	SA	A	D	SD
45. I find it difficult to talk with my teachers about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
46. My teachers always act as if they like me	SA	A	D	SD
47. My teachers like their jobs	SA	A	D	SD
48. My teachers do the best they can in their jobs	SA	A	D	SD
49. I like my teachers very much	SA	A	D	SD

50. PLEASE RATE YOUR TEACHERS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISION ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My teachers are able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My teachers are able to help me but they are not willing
3. ( ) My teachers are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. ( ) My teachers are neither able nor willing to help me decide

51. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

52. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR TEACHERS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

The following statements are about your relationships with your father. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer. NOTE: IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN LIVING WITH YOUR FATHER DURING THE PAST YEAR PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 69 ON THE NEXT PAGE. REMEMBER: The term "father" refers to whoever you are living with - stepfather, male guardian, or foster father.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
53. My father understands my problems	SA	A	D	SD
54. My father is willing to talk with me when I have a problem	SA	A	D	SD
55. My father is interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
56. My father knows the subjects I study	SA	A	D	SD
57. My father really helps me understand the lessons	SA	A	D	SD
58. I find it difficult to talk with my father about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
59. My father always acts as if he likes me	SA	A	D	SD
60. My father likes his job	SA	A	D	SD
61. My father does the best he can on his job	SA	A	D	SD
62. My father trys his best to be a good father	SA	A	D	SD
63. I like my father very much	SA	A	D	SD

64. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

65. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

66. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR FATHER SAID HE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) He hasn't said

67. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR FATHER SAID HE ACTUALLY EXPECTS YOU TO GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) He hasn't said

68. PLEASE RATE YOUR FATHER ON HIS ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My father is able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My father is able to help me but he is not willing
3. ( ) My father is willing to help me, but he is not able
4. ( ) My father is neither able nor willing to help me decide

---

The following statements are about your relationships with your mother. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer. NOTE: IF YOU HAVE NOT BEEN LIVING WITH YOUR MOTHER DURING THE PAST YEAR PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 17 ON THE NEXT PAGE. REMEMBER: The term "mother" refers to whoever you are living with - stepmother, female guardian, or foster mother.

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	1.	2.	3.	4.
69. My mother understands my problems	SA	A	D	SD
70. My mother is willing to talk with me when I have a problem	SA	A	D	SD
71. My mother is interested in the things I like to do	SA	A	D	SD
72. My mother knows the subjects I study	SA	A	D	SD
73. My mother really helps me understand my lessons	SA	A	D	SD
74. I find it difficult to talk with my mother about things that trouble me	SA	A	D	SD
75. My mother likes her job (If she doesn't work, answer this question in terms of her being a housewife)	SA	A	D	SD
76. My mother does the best she can on her job	SA	A	D	SD
77. My mother trys her best to be a good mother	SA	A	D	SD
78. My mother always acts as if she likes me	SA	A	D	SD
79. I like my mother very much	SA	A	D	SD

CARD TWO

12. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

13. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

14. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) She hasn't said

15. HOW FAR IN SCHOOL HAS YOUR MOTHER SAID SHE ACTUALLY EXPECTS YOU TO GO?

1. ( ) Until I can drop out of high school
2. ( ) Graduate from high school
3. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example, beauty or auto mechanics school
4. ( ) Business school
5. ( ) Nursing school
6. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
7. ( ) Graduate from 4 years of college
8. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)
9. ( ) She hasn't said

16. PLEASE RATE YOUR MOTHER ON HER ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My mother is able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My mother is able to help me but she is not willing
3. ( ) My mother is willing to help me, but she is not able
4. ( ) My mother is neither able nor willing to help me decide

---

17. WILL YOUR PARENTS HELP YOU REACH YOUR SCHOOL AND WORK GOALS BY HELPING YOU PAY YOUR WAY?

1. ( ) No, they can't afford to help me at all
2. ( ) Yes, they will help me some
3. ( ) Yes, they will help me quite a bit

The following two statements are about your relationships with your best friends. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
18. My best friends like school	SA	A	D	SD
19. My best friends do the best they can in their school work	SA	A	D	SD

20. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO IMPROVE YOUR GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

21. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR BEST FRIENDS URGE YOU TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

22. PLEASE RATE YOUR BEST FRIENDS ON THEIR ABILITY AND WILLINGNESS TO HELP YOU MAKE THE RIGHT DECISIONS ABOUT COLLEGE OR A JOB.

1. ( ) My best friends are able and willing to help me decide
2. ( ) My best friends are able to help me but they are not willing
3. ( ) My best friends are willing to help me, but they are not able
4. ( ) My best friends are neither able nor willing to help me decide

The following statements are about your relationships with your parents and best friends. As you read each description, consider whether your parents (P) or best friends (BF) fits the description the best. Please circle your answer. Note: If you feel that your parents and best friends both fit the description equally well (the same) then you may circle "same" (Sa).

WHO (Parents or Best Friends):	1.	2.	3.
23. best understands your problems	P	BF	Sa
24. is most willing to talk with you when you have a problem	P	BF	Sa
25. is most interested in the things you like to do	P	BF	Sa
26. best knows your school subjects	P	BF	Sa
27. best helps you understand the school lessons	P	BF	Sa

- go to top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.
28. is most difficult to talk with about things that trouble you	P	BF	Sa
29. most often acts as if they like you	P	BF	Sa
30. do you like the best	P	BF	Sa
31. tries the hardest to help you when you have a problem	P	BF	Sa
32. is it the easiest to talk to	P	BF	Sa
33. would you most like to get "closer to"	P	BF	Sa
34. has the most influence on you	P	BF	Sa
35. has the most control over you	P	BF	Sa

36. WHEN YOU ARE TRYING TO MAKE UP YOUR MIND ABOUT SOMETHING IMPORTANT, WHOSE IDEAS DO YOU PAY THE MOST ATTENTION TO?

1. ( ) Best Friends
2. ( ) Parents
3. ( ) Both about the same
4. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

37. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THREE THINGS WOULD MAKE YOU THE MOST UNHAPPY?

1. ( ) Best Friends did not like what I did
2. ( ) Parents did not like what I did
3. ( ) Favorite teacher did not like what I did

38. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING THINGS WOULD BE THE HARDEST FOR YOU TO TAKE?

1. ( ) Best Friends' disapproval
2. ( ) Parents' disapproval
3. ( ) Teachers' disapproval

39. LET'S SAY THAT YOU HAVE ALWAYS WANTED TO BELONG TO A PARTICULAR CLUB THAT YOUR BEST FRIENDS ARE MEMBERS OF, AND FINALLY YOU WERE ASKED TO JOIN. BUT, THEN YOU FOUND OUT THAT YOUR PARENTS DON'T APPROVE OF THE GROUP. Do you think you would. . . .

1. ( ) definitely join anyway
2. ( ) probably join
3. ( ) probably not join
4. ( ) definitely not join

40. SOME YOUNG PEOPLE BELIEVE THAT THEIR PARENTS ARE OLD FASHIONED OR OUT OF "TOUCH" WITH YOUTH. Do you feel this way about your parents?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

41. WHEN YOUR FAMILY EATS OUT, GOES ON A PICNIC, GOES TO A MOVIE, GOES TO A CONCERT, OR GOES ANYWHERE TOGETHER, WHAT ARE YOUR FEELINGS ABOUT GOING ALONG?

1. ( ) I enjoy going with my family very much
2. ( ) I enjoy going with my family somewhat
3. ( ) I do not enjoy going with my family--I would just as soon do something else
4. ( ) I would prefer not to go with my family at all

42. IF YOUR FAMILY WAS PLANNING TO EAT OUT, GO ON A PICNIC, GO TO A CONCERT, OR GO ANYWHERE TOGETHER, AND YOU HAD THE OPPORTUNITY TO GO SOMEWHERE WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS WHO WOULD YOU GO WITH?

1. ( ) Definitely go with family
2. ( ) Probably go with family
3. ( ) Probably go with best friends
4. ( ) Definitely go with best friends

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DESCRIPTIONS CIRCLE THE LETTER OF THE PERSON THAT BEST FITS THE DESCRIPTION. F = Father, M = Mother, B = best Friend, and T = favorite Teacher.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
43. the person whose company I most enjoy	F	M	B	T
44. the person whom I would most like to be like	F	M	B	T
45. the person whose ideas about fun are most like mine	F	M	B	T
46. the person whose ideas about right and wrong are most like mine	F	M	B	T
47. the person whose ideas about the importance of school are most like mine	F	M	B	T
48. the person whose interests are most like mine	F	M	B	T

People usually have some specific ideas about themselves. Some of these are listed below. As you read them, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of your feelings about yourself. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
49. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	SA	A	D	SD
50. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	SA	A	D	SD
51. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	SA	A	D	SD
52. I am able to do things as well as most people	SA	A	D	SD
53. I feel I do not have much to be proud of	SA	A	D	SD
54. I like myself	SA	A	D	SD
55. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	SA	A	D	SD
56. I wish I could have more respect for myself	SA	A	D	SD
57. I certainly feel useless at times	SA	A	D	SD
58. At times I think I am no good at all	SA	A	D	SD

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS DESCRIBE HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS IN WHICH YOU FACE AN IMPORTANT DECISION. READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY AND INDICATE WHICH OF THE TWO THINGS YOU WOULD MOST LIKELY DO IF YOU ACTUALLY FACED THE SITUATION.

59. You have been invited to a party to which you want very much to go. Your best friends have decided to go and are urging you to go too. They will be very unhappy if you don't go. Your parents, however, do not approve of the party and are urging you not to go. Your parents will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. ( ) Go to the party
2. ( ) Stay home

60. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

61. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents are urging you to go to the party. However, your best friends have not been invited and are urging you not to go. You really don't want to go to the party. Your parents will be very unhappy if you don't go; your best friends will be very unhappy if you do go. What would you do?

1. ( ) Go to party
2. ( ) Stay home

62. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

63. A large glass in the front door of the high school has been broken. Jim broke the glass. But both he and Bill were seen at the school the afternoon the glass was broken and both are suspected. Bill and Jim are friends and they agree to deny that they know anything about the broken glass. As a result, the principal pins the blame on both of them. You are the only person who knows who broke the glass because you were at school that afternoon. You didn't actually see the glass broken, but you heard the noise and saw Jim walking away from the door just afterwards. You are very much undecided what to do. The three friends you go around with most of the time don't think you should tell the principal. These friends hate to see an innocent person punished. But they point out to you that this is a matter between Jim and Bill and between Jim and his conscience. You talk the matter over with your mother and father. They feel that Jim is unfairly using Bill to lighten his own punishment. Your parents think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?

1. ( ) Tell the principal who broke the glass
2. ( ) Not tell the principal who broke the glass

- go to top of the next page -

64. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

65. Suppose the situation above is reversed. Your parents think that you should not tell the principal. Your best friends, however, think you should tell the principal who broke the glass. What would you do?

1. ( ) Tell the principal who broke the glass
2. ( ) Not tell the principal who broke the glass

66. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

67. You are at a point in school where you must make a decision between a college preparation program and a general program (noncollege oriented). Your best friends have all decided to enter the general program and are urging you to do the same. You want to because if you don't your friends will be very unhappy as you will be separated from them in school. Your parents, however, are strongly urging you to take the college prep program. You know also that your parents will be very unhappy if you decide not to do what they wish. Which program are you likely to enter?

1. ( ) General Program (not college prep)
2. ( ) College Preparatory

68. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

69. Suppose the situation described above is reversed. Your parents want you to enter the general program while your best friends want you to enter the college prep program with them. You really prefer the college prep program. Which program are you likely to enter?

1. ( ) General program (noncollege prep)
2. ( ) College preparatory

70. How difficult was it for you to decide which you would likely do?

1. ( ) Very difficult
2. ( ) Somewhat difficult
3. ( ) Somewhat easy
4. ( ) Very easy

71. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY WOULD REALLY LIKE TO SEE YOU GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.

_____

(Specific name or title of job parents say they would really like to see you get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)

72. WHAT KIND OF JOB HAVE YOUR PARENTS SAID THEY ACTUALLY EXPECT YOU TO GET WHEN YOU FINISH YOUR EDUCATION.

_____

(Specific name or title of job parents say they actually expect you to get. Note: If they haven't said, write "none" on the above line.)

73-75. LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. PLEASE CHECK (✓) ALL OF THOSE IN WHICH YOU PLAN TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS YEAR.

01. ( ) A Cappella Choir
02. ( ) Art
03. ( ) Band or orchestra
04. ( ) Basketball
05. ( ) Baseball
06. ( ) Bleacher crew
07. ( ) C-12
08. ( ) Chair crew
09. ( ) Cheerleading
10. ( ) Chess club
11. ( ) Chorus
12. ( ) Class officer
13. ( ) Club officer
14. ( ) Coin club
15. ( ) Committee officer
16. ( ) Dance (Prom) committee
17. ( ) Debating team
18. ( ) Dilettantes
19. ( ) Drama club (National Thesbian society)
20. ( ) Football
21. ( ) Forestry club
22. ( ) Forsenics team
23. ( ) 4-H clubs
24. ( ) Future Business Leaders of America
25. ( ) Future Farmers of America
26. ( ) Future Homemakers of America

- go to top of the next page -

27. ( ) Future Teachers of America
28. ( ) German club
29. ( ) Girls Drill Team
30. ( ) Girls Recreational Association
31. ( ) Girls Glee club
32. ( ) Girls League
33. ( ) Homecoming committee
34. ( ) Industrial Arts club
35. ( ) Indian Craft
36. ( ) International Relations League
37. ( ) Junior Community Aides
38. ( ) Key club
39. ( ) Les Saucissons
40. ( ) Les Touches
41. ( ) Letterman's
42. ( ) Library club
43. ( ) Math club
44. ( ) National Honor Society
45. ( ) NuDelta
46. ( ) Newspaper staff - Orange "R"
47. ( ) Pepsters
48. ( ) Radio club
49. ( ) Rally squad
50. ( ) Science club
51. ( ) Spanish club
52. ( ) Speech club
53. ( ) Student Beneficiary club
54. ( ) Student council or Associated Student Body
55. ( ) Swimming
56. ( ) Tennis
57. ( ) Track and field
58. ( ) Torquers club
59. ( ) Varsity R
60. ( ) Warrior Guard
61. ( ) Wrestling
62. ( ) Yearbook staff
63. ( ) Young Republicans
64. ( ) Young Democrats
65. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

CARD THREE

MANY YOUNG PEOPLE LIKE YOURSELF FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH THEIR PARENTS ABOUT SOME THINGS AND NOT DIFFICULT AT ALL TO TALK TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT OTHER THINGS. As you read each question, consider whether you never (N), sometimes (S), often (O), or always (A) have difficulty in talking about the problem with your father, mother, and best friends. Please circle your answer. Note: If you haven't talked about a given problem with your parents or best friends, do you feel you might have difficulty if you did? How often?

NOTE: If you have not been living with your father during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 24.

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HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR FATHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
13. How to dress	N	S	O	A
14. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
15. Job	N	S	O	A
16. Religion	N	S	O	A
17. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
18. Money	N	S	O	A
19. Fears	N	S	O	A
20. Late hours	N	S	O	A
21. Dating	N	S	O	A
22. Marriage	N	S	O	A
23. Education	N	S	O	A

NOTE: If you have not been living with your mother during the past year (since October, 1966) - SKIP TO QUESTION 36.

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR MOTHER CONCERNING:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
24. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
25. How to dress	N	S	O	A
26. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
27. Job	N	S	O	A
28. Religion	N	S	O	A
29. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
30. Money	N	S	O	A
31. Fears	N	S	O	A
32. Late hours	N	S	O	A
33. Dating	N	S	O	A
34. Marriage	N	S	O	A
35. Education	N	S	O	A

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS CONCERNING:	1.	2.	3.	4.
36. Appropriate entertainment	N	S	O	A
37. How to dress	N	S	O	A
38. Drinking and/or smoking	N	S	O	A
39. Job	N	S	O	A
40. Religion	N	S	O	A
41. Sex and/or petting ("making love")	N	S	O	A
42. Money	N	S	O	A
43. Fears	N	S	O	A
44. Late hours	N	S	O	A
45. Dating	N	S	O	A
46. Marriage	N	S	O	A
47. Education	N	S	O	A

48. GENERALLY, WITH WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU MOST OFTEN DISCUSS THINGS THAT ARE DIFFICULT FOR YOU TO TALK ABOUT?

1. ( ) Best Friends
2. ( ) Parents
3. ( ) Both about the same

People usually report they have some specific requirements in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL FUTURE JOB. Some of the requirements they have mentioned are listed below. As you read them, consider to what extent a job or career would have to satisfy each of these requirements before you could consider the job IDEAL.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the requirement highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the requirement of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the requirement of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the requirement of no importance at all.

- go to top of the page -

THE IDEAL JOB WOULD:	1.	2.	3.	4.
49. Provide an opportunity to use my special abilities or aptitudes	H	M	L	N
50. Provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money	H	M	L	N
51. Permit me to be creative and original	H	M	L	N
52. Give me a social status and prestige	H	M	L	N
53. Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things	H	M	L	N
54. Enable me to look forward to a stable, secure future	H	M	L	N
55. Leave me relatively free of supervision by others	H	M	L	N
56. Give me a chance to exercise leadership	H	M	L	N
57. Provide me with adventure	H	M	L	N
58. Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others	H	M	L	N

59. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL FUTURE JOB?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

People who go on to school after high school do so for many reasons. Some of these reasons are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each reason is to you. NOTE: If you do not expect to go to more school after you graduate indicate how important the reason would be if you were planning to go.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the reason highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the reason of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the reason of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the reason of no importance at all.

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REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
60. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living	H	M	L	N
61. To prepare for an occupation	H	M	L	N
62. To learn new things just to know them	H	M	L	N
63. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook	H	M	L	N
64. To enjoy social life	H	M	L	N
65. To have fun	H	M	L	N
66. Because friends expect it	H	M	L	N
67. Because parents expect it	H	M	L	N
68. To learn to get along with others	H	M	L	N
69. To find the right person to marry	H	M	L	N
70. To develop personality and character	H	M	L	N
71. To become a responsible person	H	M	L	N

72. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about the rights and responsibilities of parents and children. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD), that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
73. Children should not be forced to eat if they don't want to	SA	A	D	SD
74. Children should be permitted to tell their parents what they think about them	SA	A	D	SD
75. Parents should punish a child when he misbehaves	SA	A	D	SD

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
76. Children should eat just what they like	SA	A	D	SD
77. When a child wants his own way his parents should let him have it	SA	A	D	SD
78. Parents should not give in when a child wants his own way	SA	A	D	SD

CARD FOUR

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL MARRIAGE. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Husbands and wives should share equally in all decisions	H	M	L	N
13. Although a husband should consult his wife about what to do, he should make the final decision in important matters	H	M	L	N
14. Husbands should only make the final decisions in areas in which they have more training than their wives	H	M	L	N
15. When a husband and wife disagree about something, a wife should be willing to give in first	H	M	L	N

- go to top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
16. Teenage children should be consulted for their opinions before decisions are made	H	M	L	N
17. In a marriage the husband should do his jobs and the wife her jobs	H	M	L	N
18. A wife should get up and fix her husband breakfast on work days regardless of what time he has to leave in the morning	H	M	L	N
19. If both a husband and wife are working, a husband should help fix the evening meal and do dishes	H	M	L	N
20. A husband should do his wife's work and a wife her husband's work if necessary	H	M	L	N

21. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING HAS THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR IDEAS ABOUT AN IDEAL MARRIAGE?

1. ( ) Teachers
2. ( ) Best Friends
3. ( ) Parents
4. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

People usually have many ideas about what a student ought to do in school. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance at all.

A STUDENT OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
22. Spend most of spare time reading and studying	H	M	L	N
23. Do very best in school work (grades, study)	H	M	L	N
24. Be a star in sports activities	H	M	L	N
25. Be a leader in school activities	H	M	L	N
26. Be popular with his (her) classmates	H	M	L	N
27. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing	H	M	L	N

- go to top of the page -

People have many ideas about what young people like yourself ought to do. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
28. Have his (her) own car	SA	A	D	SD
29. Make own decisions about late hours, smoking, drinking	SA	A	D	SD
30. Choose own dates	SA	A	D	SD
31. Choose own clubs or groups to join	SA	A	D	SD
32. Be active in nonschool activities such as Boy Scouts, religious youth groups	SA	A	D	SD
33. Choose own friends	SA	A	D	SD
34. Be trusted	SA	A	D	SD
35. Be punished for breaking the law just like anybody else	SA	A	D	SD
36. Be supervised by adults at nonschool parties	SA	A	D	SD
37. Have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where not to go	SA	A	D	SD

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do at home. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
38. do things around the house without being asked	H	M	L	N
39. help with setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, sweeping, dusting, washing and ironing clothes	H	M	L	N
40. help with cooking and planning main meals, sewing, interior design	H	M	L	N
41. help with mowing lawn, taking out garbage, shopping for groceries	H	M	L	N
42. help with shopping for furniture, appliances, cars	H	M	L	N
43. be consulted for any major decisions that need to be made	H	M	L	N
44. obey his parents even though he thinks they are wrong	H	M	L	N
45. be respectful to his parents	H	M	L	N
46. show his parents that he loves them	H	M	L	N

47. HOW OFTEN DO YOUR PARENTS NAG AND QUARREL WITH EACH OTHER?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly
9. ( ) not living with father
( ) not living with mother

48. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW DISAGREEMENTS ARE SETTLED IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. ( ) Neither my father nor my mother usually give in
2. ( ) My father usually gives in to my mother
3. ( ) My mother usually gives in to my father
4. ( ) My parents usually reach an agreement through mutual give and take
5. ( ) My parents never or seldom have any disagreements
9. ( ) not living with father
( ) not living with mother

49. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT DECISIONS ARE MADE IN YOUR FAMILY? Note: If you have not lived with either your mother or father during the past year, check one of the boxes below.

1. ( ) Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother
2. ( ) Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself
3. ( ) Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together
4. ( ) Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself
5. ( ) Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father
9. ( ) not living with father
( ) not living with mother

50. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES YOUR PART IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) My parents never ask for my opinion
2. ( ) My parents sometimes ask for my opinion
3. ( ) My parents often ask for my opinion
4. ( ) My parents almost always ask for my opinion

51. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOUR PARENTS REGARD YOUR OPINION IN IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What I say usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What I say usually does make a difference in the decision

52. EVERYTHING CONSIDERED, HOW HAPPY HAS YOUR PARENTS MARRIAGE BEEN?

1. ( ) Extremely happy
2. ( ) Very happy
3. ( ) Somewhat happy
4. ( ) Somewhat unhappy
5. ( ) Very unhappy
6. ( ) Extremely unhappy

53. SUPPOSE YOU WANT TO GO TO A MOVIE. YOUR PARENTS REFUSE AND YOU BEGIN TO ARGUE STRONGLY. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. ( ) Let me go to avoid further argument; or become angry and tell me to do as I please
2. ( ) Let me argue but remain firm unless I had sound reasons
3. ( ) Not even listen to me and punish me more for arguing
4. ( ) Continue to refuse and punish me so that I'd learn not to argue

54. SUPPOSE YOUR PARENTS HAVE JUST HEARD FROM YOUR TEACHER THAT YOU HAVE NOT BEEN COMPLETING YOUR HOMEWORK? WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING WOULD YOUR PARENTS MOST LIKELY DO?

1. ( ) Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting my school work
2. ( ) Scold me for a while, but they'd soon forget it
3. ( ) Talk it over with me and help me decide how to meet the problem
4. ( ) Get angry and tell me it will be my own fault if I don't pass

55- WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE?
56. NOTE: Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If you have no religious preference put "none."

_____

(Your religious preference. Note: If you have a religious preference, are you a member?)

57. 1. ( ) Yes, I am a member
2. ( ) No, I am not a member

58. HOW OFTEN DO YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

LISTED BELOW ARE SEVERAL STATEMENTS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. The terms "brothers" and "sisters" refers to whoever you are living with -- step brothers/sisters or foster children.

59. DO YOU HAVE BROTHERS OR SISTERS AT HOME?

1. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 66)
2. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 60)

INDICATE YOUR REACTION TO EACH STATEMENT ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR BROTHERS AND SISTERS. NOTE: Please circle your answer. N if never, S if sometimes, O if often, and A if always

	1.	2.	3.	4.
60. Do you talk about sex and the facts of life with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
61. Do you attend movies, basketball games, or concerts, etc., with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
62. Do you talk with any of your brothers or sisters about books, magazines or articles you read	N	S	O	A
63. When you need advice, do you ever go to any of your brothers or sisters for it	N	S	O	A
64. Do you enjoy doing things together with any of your brothers or sisters	N	S	O	A
65. Do any of your brothers or sisters get a better "deal" than you from your parents	N	S	O	A

66. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH MEMBERS OF YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

67. HOW MUCH TIME ON SCHOOL DAYS DO YOU USUALLY SPEND TALKING WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS? (Note: Do not include time spent in the classroom.)

1. ( ) none or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

68. WHERE DO YOU SPEND MOST OF YOUR FREE TIME WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS?

1. ( ) At school sponsored activities such as ballgames, parties, club meetings
2. ( ) At non-school activities such as youth parties, church meetings
3. ( ) At various places where young people like myself "hang around"
4. ( ) At my place (home)
5. ( ) At one of my friend's places (friends' home)
6. ( ) Other (Where? _____)

69. WHAT WOULD YOU SAY WAS YOUR AVERAGE GRADE IN SCHOOL LAST GRADING PERIOD?

1. ( ) Mostly 1's
2. ( ) Mixed 1's and 2's
3. ( ) Mostly 2's
4. ( ) Mixed 2's and 3's
5. ( ) Mostly 3's
6. ( ) Mixed 3's and 4's
7. ( ) Mostly 4's
8. ( ) Mixed 4's and 5's
9. ( ) Mostly 5's

70. HOW MUCH TIME DO YOU USUALLY SPEND EACH DAY DOING HOMEWORK OUTSIDE OF SCHOOL?

1. ( ) None or almost none
2. ( ) About 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) About 1 hour a day
4. ( ) About 1 1/2 hours a day
5. ( ) About 2 hours a day
6. ( ) 3 or more hours a day

71. IF YOU COULD BE REMEMBERED HERE AT SCHOOL FOR ONE OF THE FOUR THINGS BELOW, WHICH ONE WOULD YOU MOST WANT IT TO BE?

1. ( ) Outstanding student
2. ( ) Athletic star
3. ( ) Most popular
4. ( ) Leader in school activities

72. DO YOU DATE?

1. ( ) No
2. ( ) Yes, more than once a week
3. ( ) Yes, once a week
4. ( ) Yes, more than once a month, but less than once a week
5. ( ) Yes, once a month or less

73. HOW MANY PERSONS HAVE YOU DATED DURING THE PAST MONTH?

1. ( ) None
2. ( ) One person
3. ( ) Two to three persons
4. ( ) Four to five persons
5. ( ) Six or more persons

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION. REMEMBER TO TAKE THE "TAKE-HOME PACKET" WITH YOU. PLEASE BE SURE TO URGE YOUR PARENTS TO RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRES AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

FORM C - MOTHER

3319

(IBM NUMBER)

OREGON STUDENT SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

CHECK THE SCHOOLS WHICH YOUR CHILDREN ATTEND.

( ) Roseburg Senior High
( ) Fremont Junior High
( ) Joseph Lane Junior High

CHECK THE GRADES IN WHICH YOU HAVE ONE OR MORE CHILDREN.

( ) 12th Grade
( ) 11th Grade
( ) 10th Grade
( ) 9th Grade
( ) 8th Grade
( ) 7th Grade

PURPOSE OF STUDY

THE PURPOSE of this study is to learn more about the life of young people and their parents. We are particularly interested in how fathers and mothers feel about the life of teenagers. Your teenage children completed a questionnaire similar to this one while at school today. One of your children received a "take-home-packet" along with his questionnaire which contained a questionnaire for each of his parents - one for you and one for your husband. When you have completed the questionnaires please place them in the postpaid envelope provided and mail them immediately. It is our hope that you will enjoy answering the questions. In doing so, of course, you will be of great help to us.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Please answer each question frankly and honestly. Neither your children, their teachers, nor the school will ever see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how parents, in general, answer the questions rather than in how any particular parent answers them.

INSTRUCTIONS

A. PLEASE COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING! It will take you approximately 30-45 minutes. Do not discuss the contents of the questionnaire with your husband until you and your husband have placed both questionnaires in the postpaid return envelope and mailed it.

B. A number of items use the term "husband." If you have remarried, please answer the questions in terms of your present spouse. If you are not currently living with your husband, please answer the questions in terms of when you were if you have been separated less than a year. The term "children" refers to your natural children, step children, adopted children or foster children--whoever lives with you.

C. Read each item carefully. Answer it to the best of your knowledge. Please check (✓) or circle only one answer. However, do not spend too much time on any one question.

D. Be sure to follow the directions given for answering each question.

E. Do not skip any questions unless you are instructed to do so.

F. If you wish to make comments, please feel free to do so: either in the margin next to the question or at the end of the questionnaire in the space provided.

G. You will see that the numbers do not run from 1 to 2 to 3 and that small numbers appear repeatedly in the questionnaire. This technique is used for IBM processing equipment. These numbers aid in tabulating your responses at the research office.

H. PLEASE BE SURE TO MAIL IN YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE IMMEDIATELY. (My degree depends on your promptness.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

CARD ONE

12- HOW OLD ARE YOU TODAY?
13. _____

14. WHAT IS YOUR RACIAL BACKGROUND?

1. ( ) White
2. ( ) Negro
3. ( ) Oriental
4. ( ) American Indian
5. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

15- WHICH STATE AND COUNTRY WERE YOU
16. RAISED IN?

_____
(Write name of state and country)

17. ALL, OR MOST, OF MY CHILDHOOD WAS SPENT:

1. ( ) On a farm
2. ( ) In the country, but not on a farm
3. ( ) In a village of 2,500 pop. or less
4. ( ) In a small town, 2,500 - 10,000 pop.
5. ( ) In a city, 10,000 - 100,000 pop.
6. ( ) In a metropolitan city, 100,000 pop. or more

18. WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT MARITAL SITUATION?

1. ( ) I am living with my husband
2. ( ) My husband is deceased
3. ( ) My husband and I are separated
4. ( ) My husband and I are divorced

19- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU AND
21. YOUR HUSBAND WERE MARRIED? Note: If you have remarried, put your age when you married your present spouse.

_____

22. HAVE YOU BEEN MARRIED PREVIOUSLY?

1. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 23)
2. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 28)

23. WERE YOU DIVORCED OR WIDOWED?

1. ( ) Divorced
2. ( ) Widowed

24- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU
25. WERE FIRST MARRIED?

_____

26- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU WERE
27. DIVORCED OR WIDOWED?

_____

28. HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE?

1. ( ) One
2. ( ) Two
3. ( ) Three
4. ( ) Four
5. ( ) Five
6. ( ) Six
7. ( ) Seven
8. ( ) Eight
9. ( ) Nine or more

29. HOW MANY CHILDREN ARE STILL AT HOME?

1. ( ) One
2. ( ) Two
3. ( ) Three
4. ( ) Four
5. ( ) Five
6. ( ) Six
7. ( ) Seven
8. ( ) Eight
9. ( ) Nine or more

30- WRITE THE FIRST NAMES OF EACH ONE OF
38. YOUR CHILDREN, THEIR SEX, AGE, AND THEIR GRADE IN SCHOOL. Begin with the youngest. Put M if male, and F if female.

Name	Sex	Age	Grade
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___
_____	___	___	___

39- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOUR FIRST
40. CHILD WAS BORN?

_____

41. APPROXIMATELY HOW MANY TIMES HAVE YOU MOVED SINCE YOUR FIRST CHILD WAS BORN? Note: Do not include those times when you moved from one part of town to another.

1. ( ) No times
2. ( ) One or three times
3. ( ) Four to six times
4. ( ) Seven to ten times
5. ( ) Ten or more times

42. DOES ANYONE LIVE IN YOUR HOME BESIDES YOU AND YOUR HUSBAND AND CHILDREN?

1. ( ) No
2. ( ) Yes, my mother and/or father
3. ( ) Yes, my husband's mother and/or father
4. ( ) Yes, other relatives
5. ( ) Other (Specify: _____)

43. DO YOU HAVE ENCYCLOPEDIAS OR OTHER SIMILAR BOOKS IN YOUR HOME?

1. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 44)
2. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 47)

44. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD USE THESE MATERIALS?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) Two or three times a week
7. ( ) Daily
9. ( ) I do not have a 12th grade child

45. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD USE THESE MATERIALS?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) Two or three times a week
7. ( ) Daily
9. ( ) I do not have a 9th grade child

46. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD USE THESE MATERIALS?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) Two or three times a week
7. ( ) Daily
9. ( ) I do not have a 7th grade child

47. HOW OFTEN DO YOU (or did you) READ TO YOUR YOUNGER CHILDREN (6th grade or less)?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) Two or three times a week
7. ( ) Daily

48. ARE YOU CURRENTLY EMPLOYED?

1. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 53)
2. ( ) Yes, part time } GO ON TO
3. ( ) Yes, full time } QUESTION 49

49. WHAT KIND OF WORK DO YOU DO?
Note: Please try to be as specific as possible, for example, "clerk-typist"

_____
(Name or title of job)

DESCRIBE BRIEFLY WHAT YOU DO ON YOUR JOB.

_____

_____

_____

50. HOW MANY HOURS EACH WEEK DO YOU WORK ON THE JOB DESCRIBED ABOVE?

1. ( ) More than 40 hours a week
2. ( ) 40 hours a week
3. ( ) 30-39 hours a week
4. ( ) 20-29 hours a week
5. ( ) 10-19 hours a week
6. ( ) Less than 10 hours a week

51. DO YOU ENJOY WORKING?

1. ( ) I enjoy working very much
2. ( ) I only moderately enjoy working
3. ( ) I do not enjoy working
4. ( ) I despise working

52. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING REASONS IS THE MOST IMPORTANT AS TO WHY YOU ARE WORKING?

1. ( ) I am working to meet my need for accomplishment
2. ( ) I am working so I can meet people or to occupy my time
3. ( ) I am helping in the family business
4. ( ) I am working because my family needs the money--we could not make it without my job
5. ( ) I want to earn extra money to buy a better house, more clothing, or just a better life for my family.

Parents usually have some specific ideas about the schools their children attend. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
53. The schools fail to gain the interest of my children	SA	A	D	SD
54. School is a waste of time for the type of work my children will be doing	SA	A	D	SD
55. The teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	SA	A	D	SD
56. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everyone has an equal opportunity to get good grades	SA	A	D	SD
57. I think the schools are doing a good job	SA	A	D	SD

ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES ARE SEVERAL QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR CHILDREN. THE SAME QUESTIONS ARE ASKED FOR EACH OF THREE GRADES IN WHICH YOU MAY OR MAY NOT HAVE A CHILD: 12th Grade, 9th Grade, and 7th Grade. Please answer the following question and then follow the instructions carefully.

58. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 12TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 12th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 59)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 12th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 14 ON PAGE 6)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 12th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
59. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
60. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
61. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
62. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD
63. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
64. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
65. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
66. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

67. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

68. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

69. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

70. SOME MOTHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

71. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

72. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together talking, playing together, or going places together.

1. ( ) None, or almost none
2. ( ) Less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) About 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) About 1 hour a day
5. ( ) About 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) About 2 hours a day
7. ( ) About 3 hours a day
8. ( ) About 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

73. WHEN YOU GO ON A VACATION OF A WEEK OR MORE, DOES YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

74. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY TAKE SHORT OVERNIGHT OR TWO-THREE DAY TRIPS SUCH AS VISITING OR CAMPING?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 76)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month or more

} GO ON TO QUESTION 75

75. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

76. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY EAT OUT, PICNIC, GO TO A MOVIE, GO TO A CONCERT, ETC?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 78)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

} GO ON TO QUESTION 77

77. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

78. HOW MANY TIMES EACH WEEK IS YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD ABLE TO BE PRESENT FOR EACH DAY'S EVENING MEAL?

1. ( ) No times
2. ( ) One time
3. ( ) 2-3 times
4. ( ) 4-5 times
5. ( ) 6-7 times

79. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

CARD TWO

12. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

13. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

- go to top of the page -

14. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 9TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 9th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 15)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 9th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 38 ON PAGE 7)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 9th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
15. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
16. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
17. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
18. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD
19. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
20. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
21. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
22. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

23. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

24. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

25. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

26. SOME MOTHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

27. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

28. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together talking, playing together, or going places together.

1. ( ) None, or almost none
2. ( ) Less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) About 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) About 1 hour a day
5. ( ) About 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) About 2 hours a day
7. ( ) About 3 hours a day
8. ( ) About 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

29. WHEN YOU GO ON A VACATION OF A WEEK OR MORE, DOES YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

30. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY TAKE SHORT OVERNIGHT OR TWO-THREE DAY TRIPS SUCH AS VISITING OR CAMPING?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 32)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month or more

} GO ON TO QUESTION 31

31. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

32. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY EAT OUT, PICNIC, GO TO A MOVIE, GO TO A CONCERT, ETC?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 34)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

GO ON TO QUESTION 33

33. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

34. HOW MANY TIMES EACH WEEK IS YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD ABLE TO BE PRESENT FOR EACH DAY'S EVENING MEAL?

1. ( ) No times
2. ( ) One time
3. ( ) 2-3 times
4. ( ) 4-5 times
5. ( ) 6-7 times

35. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

36. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

37. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

38. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 7TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 7th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 39)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 7th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 62 ON PAGE 9)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 7th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
39. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
40. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
41. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
42. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD
43. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
44. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
45. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
46. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

47. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

48. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

49. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

50. SOME MOTHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

51. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

52. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together talking, playing together, or going places together.

1. ( ) None, or almost none
2. ( ) Less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) About 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) About 1 hour a day
5. ( ) About 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) About 2 hours a day
7. ( ) About 3 hours a day
8. ( ) About 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

53. WHEN YOU GO ON A VACATION OF A WEEK OR MORE, DOES YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

54. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY TAKE SHORT OVERNIGHT OR TWO-THREE DAY TRIPS SUCH AS VISITING OR CAMPING?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 56)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month or more

} GO ON TO QUESTION 55

55. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

- go to top of the page -

56. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FAMILY EAT OUT, PICNIC, GO TO A MOVIE, GO TO A CONCERT, ETC?

1. ( ) Never - (SKIP TO QUESTION 58)
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

} GO ON TO QUESTION 57

57. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD GO WITH YOU?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Always

58. HOW MANY TIMES EACH WEEK IS YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD ABLE TO BE PRESENT FOR EACH DAY'S EVENING MEAL?

1. ( ) No times
2. ( ) One time
3. ( ) 2-3 times
4. ( ) 4-5 times
5. ( ) 6-7 times

59. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

60. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

61. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

People usually have some specific ideas about themselves. Some of these are listed below. As you read them, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of your feelings about yourself. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
62. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plain with others	SA	A	D	SD
63. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	SA	A	D	SD
64. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	SA	A	D	SD
65. I am able to do things as well as most other people	SA	A	D	SD
66. I feel I do not have much to be proud of	SA	A	D	SD
67. I take a favorable attitude toward myself	SA	A	D	SD
68. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	SA	A	D	SD
69. I wish I could have more respect for myself	SA	A	D	SD
70. I certainly feel useless at times	SA	A	D	SD
71. At times I think I am no good at all	SA	A	D	SD
72. I like my job (housework if you don't work)	SA	A	D	SD
73. I do the best I can on my job	SA	A	D	SD
74. I try my best to be a good mother	SA	A	D	SD

CARD THREE

People usually report they have some specific requirements in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL JOB. Some of the requirements they have mentioned are listed below. As you read them consider to what extent a job or career would have to satisfy each of these requirements before you would consider the job ideal.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the requirement highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the requirement of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the requirement of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the requirement of no importance at all.

THE IDEAL JOB WOULD:	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Provide an opportunity to use my special abilities or aptitudes	H	M	L	N
13. Provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money	H	M	L	N
14. Permit me to be creative and original	H	M	L	N
15. Give me a social status and prestige	H	M	L	N
16. Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things	H	M	L	N
17. Enable me to look forward to a stable, secure future	H	M	L	N
18. Leave me relatively free of supervision by others	H	M	L	N
19. Give me a chance to exercise leadership	H	M	L	N
20. Provide me with adventure	H	M	L	N
21. Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others	H	M	L	N

People who go on to school after high school do so for many reasons. Some of these reasons are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each reason would be to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the reason highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the reason of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the reason of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the reason of no importance at all.

REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL:

	1.	2.	3.	4.
22. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living	H	M	L	N
23. To prepare for an occupation	H	M	L	N
24. To learn new things just to know them	H	M	L	N
25. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook	H	M	L	N
26. To enjoy social life	H	M	L	N
27. To have fun	H	M	L	N
28. Because friends expect it	H	M	L	N
29. Because parents expect it	H	M	L	N
30. To learn to get along with others	H	M	L	N
31. To find the right person to marry	H	M	L	N
32. To develop personality and character	H	M	L	N
33. To become a responsible person	H	M	L	N

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL MARRIAGE. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

- go to top of the page -

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance at all.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
34. Husbands and wives should share equally in all decisions	H	M	L	N
35. Although a husband should consult his wife about what to do, he should make the final decisions in important matters	H	M	L	N
36. Husbands should only make the final decisions in areas in which they have more training than their wives	H	M	L	N
37. When a husband and wife, disagree about something, a wife should be willing to give in first	H	M	L	N
38. Teenage children should be consulted for their opinions before decisions are made	H	M	L	N
39. In a marriage, the husband should do his jobs and the wife her jobs	H	M	L	N
40. A wife should get up and fix her husband breakfast on work days regardless of what time he has to leave in the morning	H	M	L	N
41. If both a husband and wife are working, a husband should help fix the evening meal and do dishes	H	M	L	N
42. A husband should do his wife's work and a wife her husband's work, if necessary	H	M	L	N

People usually have many ideas about what a student ought to do in school. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

- go to the top of the next page -

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle No - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

A STUDENT OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
43. Spend most of spare time reading and studying	H	M	L	N
44. Do very best in school work (grades, study)	H	M	L	N
45. Be a star in sports activities	H	M	L	N
46. Be a leader in school activities	H	M	L	N
47. Be popular with his (her) classmates	H	M	L	N
48. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing	H	M	L	N

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
49. Have (his, her) own car	SA	A	D	SD
50. Make own decisions about late hours, smoking, drinking	SA	A	D	SD
51. Choose own dates	SA	A	D	SD
52. Choose own clubs or groups to join	SA	A	D	SD
53. Be active in nonschool activities such as Boy Scouts, religious youth groups	SA	A	D	SD
54. Choose own friends	SA	A	D	SD
55. Be trusted	SA	A	D	SD
56. Be punished for breaking the law just like anybody else	SA	A	D	SD
57. Be supervised by adults at nonschool parties	SA	A	D	SD
58. Have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where to go or where not to go	SA	A	D	SD

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do at home. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
59. do things around the house without being asked	H	M	L	N
60. help with setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, sweeping, dusting, washing and ironing clothes	H	M	L	N
61. help with cooking and planning main meals, sewing, interior design	H	M	L	N
62. help with mowing lawn, taking out garbage, shopping for groceries	H	M	L	N
63. help with shopping for furniture, appliances, cars	H	M	L	N
64. be consulted for any major decisions that need to be made	H	M	L	N
65. obey his parents even though he thinks they are wrong	H	M	L	N
66. be respectful to his parents	H	M	L	N
67. show his parents that he loves them	H	M	L	N

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about the rights and responsibilities of parents and children. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to the top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
68. Children should not be forced to eat if they don't want to	SA	A	D	SD
69. Children should be permitted to tell their parents what they think about them	SA	A	D	SD
70. Parents should punish a child when he misbehaves	SA	A	D	SD
71. Children should eat just what they like	SA	A	D	SD
72. When a child wants his own way his parents can't do much	SA	A	D	SD
73. Parents should not give in when a child wants his own way	SA	A	D	SD

74. SUPPOSE YOUR CHILD WANTS TO GO TO A MOVIE. YOU REFUSE AND HE BEGINS TO ARGUE STRONGLY. WHAT WOULD YOU DO?

1. ( ) I'd let him go to avoid further argument and/or tell him to do as he pleases
2. ( ) I'd let him argue, but remain firm unless he had sound reasons
3. ( ) I wouldn't listen to him and I'd punish him more for arguing
4. ( ) I'd continue to refuse and punish him so that he'd learn not to argue

75. SUPPOSE YOU HAVE JUST HEARD FROM YOUR CHILD'S TEACHER THAT HIS HOMEWORK IS NOT BEING COMPLETED. WHAT WOULD YOU DO?

1. ( ) Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting his school work
2. ( ) I'd give him a good scolding and tell him he should do better
3. ( ) Talk it over with him and help him decide how to meet the problem
4. ( ) Tell him it will be his own fault if he doesn't pass

76. MY HUSBAND AND I NAG AND QUARREL WITH EACH OTHER:

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

77. EVERYTHING CONSIDERED, HOW HAPPY HAS YOUR MARRIAGE BEEN?

1. ( ) Extremely happy
2. ( ) Very happy
3. ( ) Somewhat happy
4. ( ) Somewhat unhappy
5. ( ) Very unhappy
6. ( ) Extremely unhappy

78. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW DISAGREEMENTS ARE SETTLED IN YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) Neither I, nor my husband, usually give in
2. ( ) I usually give in to my husband
3. ( ) Usually, my husband gives in to me
4. ( ) Usually, we reach an agreement through mutual give and take
5. ( ) We seldom or never have disagreements

79. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT DECISIONS ARE MADE IN YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my husband
2. ( ) Usually, I discuss the matter with my husband and then I make the decision more or less by myself
3. ( ) Usually, both my husband and I talk over the matter with each other and then we both make the decision more or less together
4. ( ) Usually, my husband discusses the matter with me and then he makes the decision more or less by himself
5. ( ) Usually, my husband makes the decision without first discussing the matter with me

CARD FOUR

12. WHO DOES MOST OF THE CHORES (mowing lawn, shoveling snow, taking out trash or garbage, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My daughter(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My husband, myself, and the children usually share equally
5. ( ) My son(s) and my husband usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My husband usually does most of it

13. WHO TAKES CARE OF THE CHILDREN IN YOUR HOUSE (gets them up and puts them to bed, help with dressing, etc.)?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My daughter(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My husband, myself, and the children usually share equally
5. ( ) My son(s) and my husband usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My husband usually does most of it

14. WHO TAKES CARE OF MEALS (cooking, setting and cleaning the table, washing dishes, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My daughter(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My husband, myself, and the children usually share equally
5. ( ) My son(s) and my husband usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My husband usually does most of it

15. WHO DOES MOST OF THE DAILY HOUSEWORK (sweeping, vacuuming, dusting, scrubbing floors, washing and ironing clothes, making beds, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My daughter(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My husband, myself, and the children usually share equally
5. ( ) My son(s) and my husband usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My husband usually does most of it

16. WHO DOES MOST OF THE ODD JOBS AND MINOR REPAIRS AROUND YOUR HOUSE (fixing leaky faucets, extension cords, inside painting, repairing furniture, toys, etc.)?

- go to top of the page -

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My daughter(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My husband, myself, and the children usually share equally
5. ( ) My son(s) and my husband usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My husband usually does most of it

17-25. IN THE FOLLOWING LIST OF ORGANIZATIONS AND CLUBS, CHECK ( ) ALL OF THOSE TO WHICH YOU BELONG.

( ) Fraternal organizations such as the Masons, Elks, Moose, or Knights of Columbus
( ) Veteran's organizations such as VFW or American Legion
( ) Political clubs
( ) Civic groups such as Lions, Rotary
( ) Active in youth groups such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts
( ) Sports teams - softball, bowling, hobby clubs
( ) Social clubs such as a bridge club
( ) Charitable or welfare organizations such as Boys and Girls Aid Society, Muscular Dystrophy Associations, Retarded Children's Association
( ) Do you belong to PTA
( ) Church groups such as Ladies Aid, Men's Fellowships
( ) Professional organizations
( ) Other (Specify: _____)

26. DO YOU LIVE IN A HOUSE OR AN APARTMENT?

1. ( ) House, 1-2 bedroom
2. ( ) House, 3 bedrooms
3. ( ) House, 4 bedrooms or more
4. ( ) Apartment, 1 bedroom
5. ( ) Apartment, 2 bedrooms
6. ( ) Apartment, 3 bedrooms or more

27. DO YOU OWN OR RENT YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) Own my house
2. ( ) Rent my house
3. ( ) Rent an apartment

28. WHAT IS THE APPROXIMATE MARKET VALUE OF YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) $10,000 or less
2. ( ) $10,000 to $15,000
3. ( ) $15,000 to $20,000
4. ( ) $20,000 to $25,000
5. ( ) $25,000 to $35,000
6. ( ) $35,000 or more

29. DO EITHER YOUR OR YOUR HUSBAND'S PARENTS LIVE IN THIS COMMUNITY?

1. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 59)
2. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 58)

58. HOW OFTEN DO YOU SEE THEM?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

30. HOW MUCH SCHOOLING HAVE YOU COMPLETED?

1. ( ) 8th grade or less
2. ( ) More than 8th grade, but did not graduate from high school
3. ( ) Graduated from high school
4. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example: beauty or auto mechanic school
5. ( ) Business school
6. ( ) Nursing school
7. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
8. ( ) Graduated from college
9. ( ) Graduate school (Masters or Ph. D)

31. WHAT KIND OF WORK DOES YOUR FATHER DO? PLEASE TRY TO BE AS SPECIFIC AS POSSIBLE. Note: If your father is retired or deceased, indicate what you father did do.

_____
(Specify name or title of father's job)

DESCRIBE BRIEFLY WHAT YOUR FATHER DOES (did) ON HIS JOB.

_____

_____

_____

32- 33. WHAT IS YOUR FATHER'S RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE? Note: Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If he has no religious preference, put "None." Note: If your father is deceased, please list what his religious preference was.

_____
(Your father's religious preference. Is your father a member?)

34. 1. ( ) Yes, he is a member
2. ( ) No, he is not a member

35. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE? Note: If deceased, how often did he attend?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

36- 39. WHAT IS YOUR MOTHER'S RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE? Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. If she has no religious preference put "None." Note: If your mother is deceased, please list what her religious preference was.

_____
(Your mother's religious preference. Is your mother a member?)

40. 1. ( ) Yes, she is a member
2. ( ) No, she is not a member

41- 42. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE? Note: If deceased, how often did she attend?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

43- 46. WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE? Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. If you have no religious preference, put "NONE."

_____
(Your religious preference. Are you a member?)

47. 1. ( ) Yes, I am a member
2. ( ) No, I am not a member

48- 49. HOW OFTEN DO YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

50. WOULD YOU SAY THAT YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. ( ) Less often today than when you first married
2. ( ) More often today than when you first married
3. ( ) About the same as you did when you were first married

51-59. Since you were first married you may have been a member or participant in several churches or synagogues. List below in order, the churches or synagogues you have attended. Show your present or most recent affiliation first. Be as specific as possible, for example: Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. In the first column, write the name of the church or synagogue. (Note: If you did not attend or were not a member, write none and the period of time.) In column two, circle Y (for yes) if you were a member and N (for no) if you were not a member. In column three put the number of months or years. In column four circle how often you attended: N (Never), O (Occasionally), M (Once a month), F (Frequently - two or three times a month), R (Regularly - once a week), MW (More than once a week). SEE EXAMPLE

I CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE	II Member	III Years/Months	IV Attendance
Roman Catholic	(Y) N	15 ___	N O M F R (MW)
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW
_____	Y N	___ ___	N O M F R MW

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION -

FORM B - FATHER

3319
(IBM NUMBER)

OREGON STUDENT SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

CHECK THE SCHOOLS WHICH YOUR CHILDREN ATTEND.

( ) Roseburg Senior High
( ) Fremont Junior High
( ) Joseph Lane Junior High

CHECK THE GRADES IN WHICH YOU HAVE ONE OR MORE CHILDREN.

( ) 12th Grade
( ) 11th Grade
( ) 10th Grade
( ) 9th Grade
( ) 8th Grade
( ) 7th Grade

PURPOSE OF STUDY

THE PURPOSE of this study is to learn more about the life of young people and their parents. We are particularly interested in how fathers and mothers feel about the life of teenagers. Your teenage children completed a questionnaire similar to this one while at school today. One of your children received a "take-home-packet" along with his questionnaire which contained a questionnaire for each of his parents - one for you and one for your wife. When you have completed the questionnaires please place them in the postpaid envelope provided and mail them immediately. It is our hope that you will enjoy answering the questions. In doing so, of course, you will be of great help to us.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Please answer each question frankly and honestly. Neither your children, their teachers, nor the school will ever see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how parents, in general, answer the questions rather than in how any particular parent answers them.

INSTRUCTIONS

A. PLEASE COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING! It will take you approximately 30-45 minutes. Do not discuss the contents of the questionnaire with your wife until you and your wife have placed both questionnaires in the postpaid return envelope and mailed it.

B. A number of items use the term "wife." If you have remarried please answer the questions in terms of your present spouse. If you are not currently living with your wife, please answer the questions in terms of when you were if you have been separated less than a year. The term "children" refers to your natural children, step children, adopted children or foster children--whoever lives with you.

C. Read each item carefully. Answer it to the best of your knowledge. Please check (✓) or circle only one answer. However, do not spend too much time on any one question.

D. Be sure to follow the directions given for answering each question.

E. Do not skip any questions unless you are instructed to do so.

F. If you wish to make comments, please feel free to do so: either in the margin next to the question or at the end of the questionnaire in the space provided.

G. You will see that the numbers do not run from 1 to 2 to 3 and that small numbers appear repeatedly in the questionnaire. This technique is used for IBM data processing equipment. These numbers aid in tabulating your responses at the research office.

H. PLEASE BE SURE TO MAIL IN YOUR QUESTIONNAIRE IMMEDIATELY. (My degree depends on your promptness.)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

12- HOW OLD ARE YOU TODAY?
13.

_____

14. WHAT IS YOUR RACIAL BACKGROUND?

1. ( ) White
2. ( ) Negro
3. ( ) Oriental
4. ( ) Other (Specify: _____

15- WHICH STATE AND COUNTRY WERE YOU
16. RAISED IN?

_____
(Write name of state and country)

17. ALL, OR MOST, OF MY CHILDHOOD WAS SPENT:

1. ( ) On a farm
2. ( ) In the country, but not on a farm
3. ( ) In a village of 2,500 pop. or less
4. ( ) In a small town, 2,500 - 10,000 pop.
5. ( ) In a city, 10,000 - 100,000 pop.
6. ( ) In a metropolitan city, 100,000 pop. or more

18. HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU LIVED IN THIS COMMUNITY?

1. ( ) 0-2 years
2. ( ) 3-5 years
3. ( ) 6-10 years
4. ( ) 11-15 years
5. ( ) 15-19 years
6. ( ) 20 years or more

19- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU AND YOUR
20. WIFE WERE MARRIED? Note: If you have remarried put your age when you married your present spouse.

_____

21. HAVE YOU BEEN MARRIED PREVIOUSLY?

1. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 22)
2. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 27)

22. WERE YOU DIVORCED OR WIDOWED?

1. ( ) Divorced
2. ( ) Widowed

23- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU
24. WERE FIRST MARRIED?

_____

25- HOW OLD WERE YOU WHEN YOU
26. WERE DIVORCED OR WIDOWED?

_____

27. HOW MUCH SCHOOLING DO YOU HAVE?

1. ( ) 8th grade or less
2. ( ) more than 8th grade but did not graduate from high school
3. ( ) Graduated from high school
4. ( ) Trade or technical school, for example: beauty or auto mechanic school
5. ( ) Business school
6. ( ) Nursing school
7. ( ) Junior college or 2 years of college
8. ( ) Graduated from college
9. ( ) Graduate School (Masters or PH.D)

28. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH WAS YOUR TOTAL FAMILY INCOME LAST YEAR?

1. ( ) $4000 or less
2. ( ) $4000 - $6000
3. ( ) $6000 - $8000
4. ( ) $8000 - $10,000
5. ( ) $10,000 - $12,000
6. ( ) $12,000 or more

Parents usually have some specific ideas about the schools their children attend. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answers.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
30. The schools fail to gain the interest of my children	SA	A	D	SD
31. School is a waste of time for the type of work my children will be doing	SA	A	D	SD
32. The teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	SA	A	D	SD
33. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everyone has an equal opportunity to get good grades	SA	A	D	SD
34. I think the schools are doing a good job	SA	A	D	SD

ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES ARE SEVERAL QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR CHILDREN. THE SAME QUESTIONS ARE ASKED FOR EACH OF THREE GRADES IN WHICH YOU MAY OR MAY NOT HAVE A CHILD: 12th Grade, 9th Grade, and 7th Grade. Please answer the following question and then follow the instructions carefully.

35. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 12TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 12th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 36)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 12th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 53 ON PAGE 4)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 12th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
36. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
37. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
38. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
39. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD
40. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
41. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
42. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
43. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

44. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

45. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

46. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

47. SOME FATHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

48. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

49. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together, or going places together.

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

50. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

51. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

52. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 12TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

53. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 9TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 9th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 54)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 9th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 71 ON PAGE 5)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 9th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
54. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
55. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
56. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
57. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD
58. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
59. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
60. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
61. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

62. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

63. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

64. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

65. SOME FATHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

66. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

67. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together, or going places together.

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

68. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

69. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

70. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 9TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

71. DO YOU HAVE A CHILD IN THE 7TH GRADE?

1. ( ) Yes, I do have a child in the 7th grade - (GO ON TO QUESTION 72)
2. ( ) No, I do not have a child in the 7th grade - (SKIP TO QUESTION 21 ON PAGE 6)

The following statements are about your relationships with your 7th grade child. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

	1.	2.	3.	4.
72. I understand my child's problems	SA	A	D	SD
73. I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	SA	A	D	SD
74. I am interested in the things my child likes to do	SA	A	D	SD
75. I know the subjects my child studies	SA	A	D	SD

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
76. I help my child understand (his, her) lessons	SA	A	D	SD
77. I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	SA	A	D	SD
78. I always act as if I like my child	SA	A	D	SD
79. I like my child very much	SA	A	D	SD

CARD TWO

12. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO IMPROVE (HIS, HER) GRADES?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

13. HOW OFTEN DO YOU URGE YOUR CHILD TO GET MORE EDUCATION AFTER HIGH SCHOOL?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

14. DO YOU GENERALLY APPROVE OF THE FRIENDS YOUR CHILD RUNS AROUND WITH?

1. ( ) Highly approve
2. ( ) Approve
3. ( ) Disapprove
4. ( ) Highly disapprove

15. SOME FATHERS FEEL THAT THEY HAVE LOST "TOUCH" WITH THEIR TEENAGE CHILDREN. DO YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE THAT THIS IS TRUE OF YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) Strongly agree
2. ( ) Agree
3. ( ) Disagree
4. ( ) Strongly disagree

16. DO YOU SET ASIDE TIME EACH DAY TO DO SOMETHING (talk, play, go places) WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD?

1. ( ) No, never
2. ( ) Yes, sometimes
3. ( ) Yes, often
4. ( ) Yes, always

17. APPROXIMATELY HOW MUCH TIME EACH DAY DO YOU ACTUALLY SPEND WITH YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD? Note: Consider only time actually spent together, or going places together.

1. ( ) none, or almost none
2. ( ) less than 1/2 hour a day
3. ( ) about 1/2 hour a day
4. ( ) about 1 hour a day
5. ( ) about 1 1/2 hours a day
6. ( ) about 2 hours a day
7. ( ) about 3 hours a day
8. ( ) about 4 hours a day
9. ( ) 5 or more hours a day

18. BASED ON YOUR OBSERVATIONS OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS IS MOST TRUE?

1. ( ) I have considerably more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
2. ( ) I have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than do (his, her) friends
3. ( ) My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do
4. ( ) My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him, her) than I do

19. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) I never ask for (his, her) opinion
2. ( ) I sometimes ask for (his, her) opinion
3. ( ) I often ask for (his, her) opinion
4. ( ) I almost always ask for (his, her) opinion

20. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT YOU REGARD THE OPINION OF YOUR 7TH GRADE CHILD IN THE MAKING OF IMPORTANT FAMILY DECISIONS?

1. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
2. ( ) What (he, she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

People usually have some specific ideas about themselves. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true of your feelings about yourself. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
21. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	SA	A	D	SD
22. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	SA	A	D	SD
23. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure	SA	A	D	SD
24. I am able to do things as well as most other people	SA	A	D	SD
25. I feel I do not have much to be proud of	SA	A	D	SD
26. I take a favorable attitude toward myself	SA	A	D	SD
27. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	SA	A	D	SD
28. I wish I could have more respect for myself	SA	A	D	SD
29. I certainly feel useless at times	SA	A	D	SD
30. At times I think I am no good at all	SA	A	D	SD
31. I like my job	SA	A	D	SD
32. I do the best I can on my job	SA	A	D	SD
33. I try my best to be a good father	SA	A	D	SD

34-41. IN THE FOLLOWING LIST OF ORGANIZATIONS AND CLUBS, CHECK ( ) ALL OF THOSE TO WHICH YOU BELONG.

( ) Fraternal organizations such as the Masons, Elks, Moose, or Knights of Columbus
( ) Veteran's organizations such as VFW or American Legion
( ) Political clubs
( ) Civic groups such as Lions, Rotary
( ) Active in yough groups such as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts
( ) Sports teams - softball, bowling, hobby clubs
( ) Social clubs such as a bridge club
( ) Charitable or welfare organizations such as Boys and Girls Aid Society, Muscular Dystrophy Associations, Retarded Children's Association
( ) Do you belong to PTA
( ) Church groups such as Ladies Aid, Men's Fellowship
( ) Professional organizations
( ) Other (Specify: _____)

People usually report they have some specific requirements in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL JOB. Some of the requirements they have mentioned are listed below. As you read them consider to what extent a job or career would have to satisfy each of these requirements before you would consider the job ideal.

Please circle HIGH -H if you consider the requirement highly important.

Circle MEDIUM -M if you consider the requirement of medium importance.

Circle LOW- L if you consider the requirement of little importance.

Circle NO -N if you consider the requirement of no importance at all.

THE IDEAL JOB WOULD:	1.	2.	3.	4.
42. Provide an opportunity to use my special abilities or aptitudes	H	M	L	N
43. Provide me with a chance to earn a good deal of money	H	M	L	N
44. Permit me to be creative and original	H	M	L	N
45. Give me a social status and prestige	H	M	L	N
46. Give me an opportunity to work with people rather than things	H	M	L	N
47. Enable me to look forward to a stable, secure future	H	M	L	N
48. Leave me relatively free of supervision by others	H	M	L	N
49. Give me a chance to exercise leadership	H	M	L	N
50. Provide me with adventure	H	M	L	N
51. Give me an opportunity to be helpful to others	H	M	L	N

People who go on to school after high school do so for many reasons. Some of these reasons are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each reason would be to you.

Please circle HIGH -H if you consider the reason highly important.

- go to top of the page -

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the reason of medium importance.

Circle LOW-L if you consider the reason of little importance.

Circle NO-N if you consider the reason of no importance at all.

REASONS FOR GOING ON TO SCHOOL:	1.	2.	3.	4.
52. Acquiring the skills necessary to earn a living	H	M	L	N
53. To prepare for an occupation	H	M	L	N
54. To learn new things just to know them	H	M	L	N
55. To broaden intellectual and cultural outlook	H	M	L	N
56. To enjoy social life	H	M	L	N
57. To have fun	H	M	L	N
58. Because friends expect it	H	M	L	N
59. Because parents expect it	H	M	L	N
60. To learn to get along with others	H	M	L	N
61. To find the right person to marry	H	M	L	N
62. To develop personality and character	H	M	L	N
63. To become a responsible person	H	M	L	N

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about an IDEAL MARRIAGE. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance at all.

- go to top of the next page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
64. Husbands and wives should share equally in all decisions	H	M	L	N
65. Although a husband should consult his wife about what to do, he should make the final decision in important matters	H	M	L	N
66. Husbands should only make the final decisions in areas in which they have more training than their wives	H	M	L	N
67. When a husband and wife disagree about something, a wife should be willing to give in first	H	M	L	N
68. Teenage children should be consulted for their opinions before decisions are made	H	M	L	N
69. In a marriage, the husband should do his jobs and the wife her jobs	H	M	L	N
70. A wife should get up and fix her husband breakfast on work days regardless of what time he has to leave in the morning	H	M	L	N
71. If both a husband and wife are working, a husband should help fix the evening meal and do dishes	H	M	L	N
72. A husband should do his wife's work and a wife her husband's work, if necessary	H	M	L	N

People usually have many ideas about what a student ought to do in school. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

- go to top of the page -

A STUDENT OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
73. Spend most of spare time reading and studying	H	M	L	N
74. Do very best in school work (grades, study)	H	M	L	N
75. Be a star in sports activities	H	M	L	N
76. Be a leader in school activities	H	M	L	N
77. Be popular with his (her) classmates	H	M	L	N
78. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing	H	M	L	N

CARD THREE

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement, consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
12. Have (his, her) own car	SA	A	D	SD
13. Make own decisions about late hours, smoking, drinking	SA	A	D	SD
14. Choose own dates	SA	A	D	SD
15. Choose own clubs or groups to join	SA	A	D	SD
16. Be active in nonschool activities such as Boy Scouts, religious youth groups	SA	A	D	SD
17. Choose own friends	SA	A	D	SD
18. Be trusted	SA	A	D	SD
19. Be punished for breaking the law just like anybody else	SA	A	D	SD
20. Be supervised by adults at nonschool parties	SA	A	D	SD
21. Have standards (rules) to obey such as what time to be in, where to go or where not to go	SA	A	D	SD

People have many ideas about what young people ought to do at home. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read them, consider how important each idea is to you.

Please circle HIGH - H if you consider the idea highly important.

Circle MEDIUM - M if you consider the idea of medium importance.

Circle LOW - L if you consider the idea of little importance.

Circle NO - N if you consider the idea of no importance.

A YOUNG PERSON OUGHT TO:	1.	2.	3.	4.
22. do things around the house without being asked	H	M	L	N
23. help with setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, sweeping, dusting, washing and ironing clothes	H	M	L	N
24. help with cooking and planning main meals, sewing, interior design	H	M	L	N
25. help with mowing lawn, taking out garbage	H	M	L	N
26. help with shopping for furniture, appliances, cars	H	M	L	N
27. be consulted for any major decisions that need to be made	H	M	L	N
28. obey his parents even though he thinks they are wrong	H	M	L	N
29. be respectful to his parents	H	M	L	N
30. show his parents that he loves them	H	M	L	N

People usually have some specific ideas in mind when they are thinking about the rights and responsibilities of parents and children. Some of these ideas are listed below. As you read each statement consider whether you strongly agree (SA), agree somewhat (A), disagree somewhat (D), or strongly disagree (SD) that the statement is true. Please circle your answer.

- go to top of the page -

	1.	2.	3.	4.
31. Children should not be forced to eat if they don't want to	SA	A	D	SD
32. Children should be permitted to tell their parents what they think about them	SA	A	D	SD
33. Parents should punish a child when he misbehaves	SA	A	D	SD
34. Children should eat just what they like	SA	A	D	SD
35. When a child wants his own way his parents can't do much	SA	A	D	SD
36. Parents should not give in when a child wants his own way	SA	A	D	SD

37. SUPPOSE YOUR CHILD WANTS TO GO TO A MOVIE. YOU REFUSE AND HE BEGINS TO ARGUE STRONGLY. WHAT WOULD YOU DO?

1. ( ) I'd let him go to avoid further argument and/or tell him to do as he pleases
2. ( ) I'd let him argue, but remain firm unless he had sound reasons
3. ( ) I wouldn't listen to him and I'd punish him more for arguing
4. ( ) I'd continue to refuse and punish him so that he'd learn not to argue

38. SUPPOSE YOU HAVE JUST HEARD FROM YOUR CHILD'S TEACHER THAT HIS HOMEWORK IS NOT BEING COMPLETED. WHAT WOULD YOU DO?

1. ( ) Turn off the TV (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting his school work
2. ( ) I'd give him a good scolding and tell him he should do better
3. ( ) Talk it over with him and help him decide how to meet the problem
4. ( ) Tell him it will be his own fault if he doesn't pass

39. MY WIFE AND I NAG AND QUARREL WITH EACH OTHER:

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Sometimes
3. ( ) Often
4. ( ) Constantly

40. EVERYTHING CONSIDERED, HOW HAPPY HAS YOUR MARRIAGE BEEN?

1. ( ) Extremely happy
2. ( ) Very happy
3. ( ) Somewhat happy
4. ( ) Somewhat unhappy
5. ( ) Very unhappy
6. ( ) Extremely unhappy

41. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW DISAGREEMENTS ARE SETTLED IN YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) Neither I, nor my wife, usually give in
2. ( ) I usually give in to my wife
3. ( ) Usually, my wife gives in to me
4. ( ) Usually, we reach an agreement through mutual give and take
5. ( ) We seldom or never have disagreements

42. WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES HOW IMPORTANT DECISIONS ARE MADE IN YOUR FAMILY?

1. ( ) Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my wife
2. ( ) Usually, I discuss the matter with my wife and then I make the decision more or less by myself
3. ( ) Usually, both my wife and I talk over the matter with each other and then we both make the decision more or less together
4. ( ) Usually, my wife discusses the matter with me and then she makes the decision more or less by herself
5. ( ) Usually, my wife makes the decision without first discussing the matter with me

43. WHO DOES MOST OF THE ODD JOBS AND MINOR REPAIRS AROUND YOUR HOUSE (fixing leaky faucets, extension cords, inside painting, repairing furniture, toys, etc.)?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My son(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My wife, myself, and the children usually share equally in this job
5. ( ) My daughter(s) and my wife usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My wife usually does most of it

44. WHO TAKES CARE OF THE CHILDREN IN YOUR HOUSE (gets them up and puts them to bed, helps with dressing, etc.)?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My son(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My wife, myself, and the children usually share equally in this job
5. ( ) My daughter(s) and my wife usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My wife usually does most of it

45. WHO DOES MOST OF THE CHORES (mowing the lawn, shoveling snow, taking out trash, or garbage, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My son(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My wife, myself, and the children usually share equally in this job
5. ( ) My daughter(s) and my wife usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My wife usually does most of it

46. WHO DOES MOST OF THE DAILY HOUSEWORK (sweeping, vacuuming, dusting, scrubbing floors, washing and ironing clothes, making beds, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My son(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My wife, myself, and the children usually share equally in this job
5. ( ) My daughter(s) and my wife usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My wife usually does most of it

47. WHO TAKES CARE OF MEALS (cooking, setting and clearing the table, washing dishes, etc.) IN YOUR HOUSE?

1. ( ) I usually do most of it
2. ( ) My son(s) usually does most of it
3. ( ) My son(s) and I usually do about an equal amount
4. ( ) My wife, myself, and the children usually share equally in this job
5. ( ) My daughter(s) and my wife usually do about an equal amount
6. ( ) My daughter(s) usually does most of it
7. ( ) My wife usually does most of it

48. ARE YOU CURRENTLY EMPLOYED?

1. ( ) Yes - (SKIP TO QUESTION 51)
2. ( ) No - (GO ON TO QUESTION 49)

49. IF YOU ARE NOT CURRENTLY EMPLOYED WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BEST DESCRIBES YOUR EMPLOYMENT SITUATION?

1. ( ) I am retired
2. ( ) I am not physically able to work
3. ( ) I am temporarily out of work and am receiving unemployment benefits
4. ( ) I am temporarily out of work but not receiving unemployment benefits

50. HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN UNEMPLOYED, FURLOUGHED, OR LAID OFF FROM YOUR JOB?

1. ( ) Less than 1 month
2. ( ) 2 - 3 months
3. ( ) 4 - 5 months
4. ( ) 6 - 7 months
5. ( ) Almost 1 year
6. ( ) Almost 2 years
7. ( ) Longer than 2 years

51. HOW MANY TIMES DURING THE PAST TWO YEARS (since November, 1965) HAVE YOU BEEN UNEMPLOYED, FURLOUGHED, OR LAID OFF FROM YOUR JOB?

1. ( ) No times
2. ( ) One time
3. ( ) Two times
4. ( ) Three times
5. ( ) Four times
6. ( ) Five or more times

52. WHAT IS THE FULL NAME OF THE COMPANY OR BUSINESS THAT EMPLOYS YOU? Note: If you work for yourself write "self-employed" and give the name of your business.

_____

(Name of company in which you are employed)

IF SELF-EMPLOYED GO TO QUESTION 53. IF YOU WORK FOR AN EMPLOYER SKIP TO QUESTION 56.

53. IF YOU ARE A FARMER, HOW MANY ACRES OF LAND DO YOU WORK?

1. ( ) Not a farmer - go on to question 55
2. ( ) Am a farmer and work 250 acres or less
3. ( ) Am a farmer and work 250-500 acres
4. ( ) Am a farmer and work 500-1000 acres
5. ( ) Am a farmer and work 100 acres or more

54. DO YOU OWN OR RENT YOUR FARM?

1. ( ) Rent
2. ( ) Own

55. HOW MANY EMPLOYEES DO YOU HAVE WORKING FOR YOU?

1. ( ) None
2. ( ) 1-4
3. ( ) 5-9
4. ( ) 10-24
5. ( ) 25-49
6. ( ) 50-99
7. ( ) 100 or more

56. HOW LONG HAVE YOU WORKED FOR THE EMPLOYER YOU NAMED ABOVE?

1. ( ) Less than 1 year
2. ( ) 2-3 years
3. ( ) 4-5 years
4. ( ) 6-10 years
5. ( ) 11-15 years
6. ( ) 15 or more years

57. HOW MANY HOURS EACH WEEK DO YOU WORK FOR THE EMPLOYER NAMED ABOVE?

1. ( ) More than 40 hours a week
2. ( ) 40 hours a week
3. ( ) 30-39 hours a week
4. ( ) 20-29 hours a week
5. ( ) 10-19 hours a week
6. ( ) Less than 10 hours a week

58. WHAT KIND OF WORK DO YOU DO? Note: Please try to be as specific as possible, for example, "welder."

_____

(Name or title of job)

BRIEFLY DESCRIBE WHAT YOU DO ON YOUR JOB. For example, "I use an electric arc device to join metal together."

_____

_____

_____

59. HOW MANY PEOPLE WORK DIRECTLY OR INDIRECTLY UNDER YOUR SUPERVISION? Check one.

1. ( ) None
2. ( ) 1-4
3. ( ) 5-9
4. ( ) 10-24
5. ( ) 25-49
6. ( ) 50-99
7. ( ) 100 or more

60. HAS YOUR JOB TITLE OR TYPE OF WORK CHANGED SINCE YOU STARTED WORKING FOR YOUR CURRENT EMPLOYER? For example: John started working for Oregon Wood Products as an unskilled laborer. After being there 10 years, he has been promoted several times and is currently supervisor of 100 men.

1. ( ) Yes - (GO ON TO QUESTION 61-62)
2. ( ) No - (SKIP TO QUESTION 63-64)

61- List below in order the positions which you have held. Show your present or most recent job first.
62. Under "specific duties" emphasize your own specific tasks including kind of work and responsibilities.

a. Job title _____ Total time employed in this capacity

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

b. Job title _____ Total time employed in this capacity

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

c. Job title _____ Total time employed in this capacity

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

d Job title _____ Total time employed in this capacity

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

63- LIST BELOW IN ORDER YOUR WORK EXPERIENCE AND THE POSITIONS YOU HAVE HELD. SHOW
64. YOUR PRESENT OR MOST RECENT JOB FIRST. GIVE AS COMPLETE INFORMATION AS POSSIBLE.
Under "specific duties" emphasize your own specific tasks including kind of work and responsibilities.

a. Job title _____ Total time employed

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

b. Job title _____ Total time employed

Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

- go to top of the next page -

c. Job title _____ Total time employed Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

d. Job title _____ Total time employed Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

e. Job title _____ Total time employed Yrs. ____ Mos. ____

Specific duties _____

_____

NOTE: IF MORE SPACE IS REQUIRED, FILL OUT A BLANK SHEET AS ABOVE AND ATTACH.

65. WHAT KIND OF WORK DOES YOUR FATHER DO? PLEASE TRY TO BE AS SPECIFIC AS POSSIBLE. Note: If your father is retired or deceased, indicate what your father did do.

_____
(Specific name or title of father's job)

SPECIFIC DUTIES _____

_____

_____

66- 67. WHAT IS YOUR FATHER'S RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE? Note: Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. Example, Southern Baptist, Free Methodist, Roman Catholic, etc. If he has no religious preference put "None." Note: If your father is deceased please list what his religious preference was.

_____
(Your father's religious preference. Is your father a member?)

68. 1. ( ) Yes, he is a member
2. ( ) No, he is not a member

69. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR FATHER ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE? Note: If deceased, how often did he attend?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

70- 71. WHAT IS YOUR MOTHER'S RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE? Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. If she has no religious preference put "None." Note: If your mother is deceased please list what her religious preference was.

_____
(Your mother's religious preference. Is your mother a member?)

72. 1. ( ) Yes, she is a member
2. ( ) No, she is not a member

73- 74. HOW OFTEN DOES YOUR MOTHER ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE IN A CHURCH OR SYNAGOGUE? Note: If deceased, how often did she attend?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

75- WHAT IS YOUR RELIGIOUS PREFERENCE?
76. Please be as precise as possible in giving the specific religious preference. If you have no religious preference put "None."

_____
(Your religious preference. Are you a member?)

77. 1. ( ) Yes, I am a member
2. ( ) No, I am not a member

78. HOW OFTEN DO YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE OR SYNAGOGUE?

1. ( ) Never
2. ( ) Several times a year
3. ( ) About once a month
4. ( ) Two or three times a month
5. ( ) About once a week
6. ( ) More than once a week

79. WOULD YOU SAY THAT YOU ATTEND A WORSHIP SERVICE OR SYNAGOGUE:

1. ( ) Less often today than when you were first married
2. ( ) More often today than when you first married
3. ( ) About the same as you did when you were first married

- THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION -